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NEW ZEALAND AS IT IS.

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NEW ZEALAND

AS IT IS.

BY

JOHN BRADSHAW, J.P.

FOR THE COUNTY OF CHESTER, AND THE COLONY OF NEW ZEALAND.

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In Memoriam

OF A DEAR LADY;

WHOSE ACQUAINTANCE WAS MADE IN NEW ZEALAND:

—A GOOD WIFE—A BELOVED MOTHER—AN ADORED SISTER—

THE FIRST OF MANY FRIENDS KINDLY GIVEN IN A NEW HOME; THE FIRST

TO BE LAID BENEATH THE COMMON SOIL.

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NEW ZEALAND AS IT IS.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

It will generally be acknowledged that a book, to be satisfactory, should have a definite aim. It should be written with a purpose, and that purpose ought to be kept distinctly in view. Its object may be either to amuse or instruct, and it may often combine the two ideas with great advantage. In the present volume, it is to be hoped that matter will be found both new and suggestive—something which will give a better idea of life at this side of the globe, and something which will tend to confirm or deter the intending emigrant.

But little detailed information about the colony has been supplied by persons who have made of the country a permanent home—a home from which to compel a living by the toil of their hands and the sweat of their brow. This it is the endeavour of the author now to place before the public, and, while he attempts to do so, he fully recognizes the difficulties of such an undertaking. In the first place, it is not easy for a stranger to convey the true value of his experiences to strangers, unless the latter should be able to seize a

certain impression of his individuality. In the second, it is next to impossible to draw apposite and trustworthy conclusions concerning the condition of a country relatively to others, unless a life of travel and somewhat extensive opportunities for comparison have fallen to the lot of the writer. In the present instance that lot has been more or less chequered: his numerous and varied facilities for studying life and social divergencies both in the Old World and the New commenced at Harrow; then followed a certain period spent in Paris, Italy, and many parts of the Continent.

This happened, too, in those good old days when the travelling carriage was entered at Marseilles, and the route was by road until Naples, bright with many a villa and fragrant with orange groves, was reached; when the Papal "*Lascia passare*" was a necessary credential to avoid delay at the Porto del Popolo, and plate and linen formed a heavy item in the baggage of those intending to winter in the City of the Seven Hills. Next came a long, but not uninteresting period of twenty years, spent in the rapid whirl of business cares —a time when North and South America had frequently to be visited, and when the somewhat irksome restraints of office life were varied by changeful scenes and friendships formed in many queer corners of the earth. Even yet we sometimes long—but long, alas! in vain—for but another of those old fern-hunting expeditions among the mountains of Tijuca,—the bright-winged butterfly flitting across the path, or the many-tinted humming-bird hovering above the scented blossoms. In our New Zealand home, often do the recollections of more stirring times touch the chords of latent memory;—the storm at sea,—the solemn burial, when calm at last prevailed,—the ship on fire,—but above all

and over all, the glories of the primæval forest, the splendour of the Alpine snows, and the grandeur of the Atlantic gale. To us we trust that scenes like these have taught the truths which they must have been intended to convey: the omnipotence of God—the littleness of man.

In a certain sense, New Zealand is but a little world. In proportion to the big cities of the earth, its towns are small, its villages still less. Its people, spread over an area almost identical with that of the United Kingdom, number no more than a sixth part of the population of the English capital. Such small communities are likely to become narrow, especially that portion of the people which has seen no other country of the world. A large proportion of the colonists have found here but a second home, and the argument does not apply so forcibly to these. But the tendency is very marked in the young people who have been altogether brought up in the country. They may be clever, well-educated, and even the children of those who have seen more, but their world is New Zealand; they read, but what they read seems more like a tale of fairy-land than actual fact. They see nothing in this country like to the Old World buildings, towns, and ruins, which form the setting of the picture. As children we used to pass St. Paul's, and walk with awe among the tombs in the old Abbey on the Thames. We visited the Tower, and saw the knights clad in the armour of Agincourt and Cressy. Our museums are full of ancient monuments and mummies, antique jewellery and work from the ladies' bower, all speaking of the past; and when we read, these things occur to the mental vision, and give life to what would otherwise be dead. It is said that colonists born and bred,

when first they visit home are not impressed by what they see. They miss the plains, the waving tussuck, the bright blue sky and atmospheric purity of their native land. Our fields look like gardens, our churches are only old bits of building, our churchyards but a number of graves. They fail at first to grasp the wealth that tillage hides, the history those churches tell, the love that in those old churchyards lies buried. But notwithstanding this they have a country, and they love it; they have their tales of how their fathers strove successfully with great and many difficulties. They have a history, but it is not ours; they have experience, but it is of the new, and not of the old.

The object of the following pages is to place these and other characteristics of this country before the reader in their cosmopolitan rather than in their purely colonial aspect; and to consider them rather as they affect those who are about to leave their native land than as they appear to colonists themselves.

CHAPTER II.

OUTWARD BOUND.

We were recommended by "an old colonial" to come by sail round the Cape, on the ground that as time was of little object, we and all our belongings would, by so doing, arrive together. This was very good advice for a family man; but the untrammelled bachelor would probably prefer to come by Suez or San Francisco. The extra fares by steamer and the expense of transhipping in Australia or carrying a large family across the American continent, would generally prove prohibitory. Steamers do not always serve in connexion, and hotel bills have to be encountered. Transhipments, too, cost more to a stranger than to one well acquainted with the ways and customs of the road. The farmer, ignorant of usual charges, and unwilling to seem a niggard, is apt to pay heavily for any little services which may be rendered, just as he would do under similar circumstances either in Liverpool or New York. Then come boatmen, cabmen, theatres, and other places of amusement, the latter rendered all the more irresistible by the tedium of a long voyage. Practically, therefore, our friend was right. By all means come by sail, if economy is to be studied. But in that case it is necessary to be prepared for a few discomforts which are not ordinarily to be found by the more

expeditious, if costlier, steam service *viâ* Australia or the States.

When making a selection from one of the many ways by which the colony can be reached, it will be advisable for a proposing settler, unless he happens to be a millionaire, to take the cheapest. As a rule, six weeks, more or less, are, when leaving old ties for the purpose of undertaking new responsibilities, but of little moment. Money is likely to be of far more. Supposing a man, by the sale of his property, to have a larger sum standing at his credit in a bank than was ever the case before; he is inclined to think twenty pounds spent here, and twenty pounds spent there, of little consequence. He will still have a large sum left, he argues, to take out to the colony. He is apt to run into wild extravagances which hereafter he may consider had better have been left alone. A person about to emigrate should recollect that he will shortly arrive in a new country where past experience will avail him little, but ready money form a large ingredient in his future. It may be longer than he thinks before he can even settle down; it will certainly be much longer than he thinks before any return from his labour can place him in easy circumstances. With such a prospect the wise man will spend as little as he can in coming out, and arrive with as much cash as possible in his pocket.

To those intending to come by sail, a few suggestions may tend to make the voyage somewhat less irksome, and minister considerably to the comforts of the traveller. A small private store of luxuries, when a voyage of long duration is in prospect, is of more importance than might at first sight appear. Talk to shipping agents, and they will assure the applicant that any

private supplies are altogether unnecessary—that their company invariably finds all the stores that can possibly be wanted, and that not to do so would be both a slur on the management, and in a short time bring it to irretrievable discredit. True it is, that most vessels are well stored with live sheep, pigs, and poultry of all descriptions; that they carry a certain supply of potted meats, good butter and bad, biscuits, preserves, potatoes, and cheese. Yet sheep do not seem to thrive after being a month at sea; pigs have a foolish habit of jumping overboard, cutting their throats by suicidal contact with the waves, or dying asphyxiated in their sties; poultry moult at improper times; potatoes take to growing when least wanted so to do, and cheese emits an odour far from appetizing. Knowing all this, we would recommend a small supply of jam and some really good tinned potted meats; also some tinned "coffee and milk"—a comforting and popular beverage at sea, whatever it may be on dry land. Nor should a small swing lamp be forgotten, with kettle over head, from which to brew a cup of coffee after the galley fires are out, or perhaps the last hot glass of grog.

A few other trifles will greatly add to the comforts of the voyage, and some of these are almost necessary. The traveller by sail round the Cape must, as a rule, fix up his cabin. This may be done in two ways—either at his own cost and under his personal supervision, or the ship will undertake to do it on such terms as may be arranged. The latter course is preferable, and will be found in the long-run cheaper. In either case a few brass hooks, on which to hang the boot and clothes' bags; a square piece of ticking, or some such strong material, to be nailed to the side, and containing a couple of rows of pockets, in which to fit brushes,

bottles, and other little articles, will help to make the cabin more shipshape. A supply of line, to prevent the cabin boxes from rolling from side to side as the ship lurches, will add to the immunity of shins, and greatly assist the placidity of their owner. By all means take a lounging-chair, in which to enjoy the soothing pipe, or rest when feeling ill at ease. Label it, ticket it, do all you can to make it private property, and from the very first assert your rights, or some one in time will come to think it his, and make you feel an intruder, where by all law you should be owner. There always are a few on board who think the deck or skylight seats will make an easy resting-place until they try. To such short-sighted ones true kindness is to show no pity. If so improvident at first, how can they hope to make good settlers? Tell them to net a hammock or shift as best they can.

A sea voyage always presents features more or less similar. To the sailor, busy with his professional duties, time slips rapidly away; but the passenger must occasionally feel the tedious monotony of three months passed between the cabin and the poop. Any little excitement, such as the passing sail or harmless joke, is gladly seized upon to occupy the vacant hours. In our case the usual squalls and succeeding calms of the favourable breeze and adverse winds never exceeded a medium intensity. Once only during the "southing" were we under doubled-reefed topsails. Thus we were compelled to look within ourselves for any variation in our daily life. Of course there were little quarrels and little tiffs, but the general harmony was maintained. Myself and wife, a brother-in-law, a west-country farmer with his wife, four daughters, and four slouching boys, a Wellington wine-merchant and his bride, a north of

Ireland family, a hydropathic doctor, an ex-officer, an ex-bank-clerk, a Scotch engineer, steady and hard-working, with two or three young men who seemed to have no idea of why they had left the old country, or what they were going to do in the new, constituted a fair sample of the human cargo generally carried by such ships as ours. The details may differ—the general type remains.

CHAPTER III.

FIRST IMPRESSIONS.

We sighted land the day previous to reaching Lyttelton. It was afternoon, and although the sun, setting in full blue ether, bathed the distant mountains in a flood of mellow light, it rendered the shore-line hazy, and its objects indistinct. We were not therefore prepared for the lovely panorama which warmed our hearts when first stepping on deck next morning. In front, the verdantly clad hills of the Peninsula and Port Lyttelton; behind, a long range of snow-capped mountains, distant about sixty to eighty miles, their peaks rising from 3000 to 5000 feet above the sea. Behind these again might have been seen, had the intervening ranges permitted, Mount Cook, the loftiest mountain in the middle island, its summit 13,000 feet high, and clothed with perpetual snow. Above was a clear blue sky, unstained by the slightest fleck of white. We had seen views quite as lovely, but none which possessed exactly the same shade of colouring. The tone was not so warm as that to be seen from the top of Milan Cathedral when reflected upon the Italian Alps, nor was it the cold clear blue characteristic of North American skies, neither did it call to mind the grey shadowless intensity of the tropics. It had a tinge of each—or perhaps more correctly, it was a

combination of the three, but it possessed an individuality all its own.

It must not be supposed that the New Zealand sky always wears the smiling aspect which it did that day. Here as elsewhere we have rains, storms, and mountain mists. But it must be conceded that the number of days in which it is a pleasure to live; and when the sky appears of the bluest and the landscape at its best, far exceeds the proportion in most other habitable countries. It has often been said that mountaineers fail to appreciate the beauty of their native scenery. This may after all be but a popular delusion. Take them away and set them down in some smoky city or monotonous plain, would they live there contented? or would they not rather pine for the exhilarating air of their mountain slopes and the far-off beauties of their native glens? At all events in New Zealand we have seen one of the oldest settlers start up suddenly from his seat in the railway carriage, and with outstretched arms pointing to the mountains, and with animated expression, exclaim; "Isn't that lovely?" Indeed we often hear, instead of the stereotyped "Is it not a beautiful day?" the expression, "Does not the country look beautiful to-day?" Whether it be from the rareness of the atmosphere, or the greater variety of the mountain tints, we know not, but a true lover of the country always finds something fresh to admire in our island scenery.

Two transatlantic ships had just made the port before our own, and as the Harbour Board at that time possessed but one tug, we were left until late in the afternoon to enjoy the beauties of the landscape, so that it was quite dusk when we set foot on the harbour jetty. We believe that the one of our party most delighted at being again on shore was our little fox terrier

"Wasp." It was vastly amusing to see him prick his ears, and sniff the air, evidently in some doubts as to his whereabouts. That he had suspicions of being no longer on board was clear, but it was not until the actual soil was reached, and a patch of grass smelt and eaten, that he seemed fully to realize the pleasant fact. Then his enthusiasm knew no bounds. Every street corner was investigated, and every open door attracted his attention. Dear old dog—now no more! a link that bound us to kind friends at home, and happy lines in pleasant places.

We were soon carried by train from Lyttelton to Christchurch; a luxurious mode of transit, far different from the toils of the pilgrim fathers, or of those early settlers who had to drag both themselves and their weary loads over the summit of the Port Hills. And here it may be remarked, that the new arrival has, now-a-days, no hardships to undergo, for the better-class hotels are both cheap and numerous. The usual charge is ten shillings a day, including sitting-room; whilst bachelors and persons intending a longer residence are placed by arrangement on better terms. Food is plentiful and excellent. Soup, fish, poultry, beef, and mutton, vegetables, tarts, with bread and butter of the very best quality, ought to satisfy all grumblers. To the poorer class of emigrants the Government barracks afford protection until they have found a first situation. Those in an intermediate position will find at the smaller hotels or lodging-houses, which everywhere abound, beds at about two shillings a night, one shilling being charged for each meal. Under such circumstances a person can calculate to a nicety what he is spending, and adjust his daily bill either to the depth of his purse, or to his own inclinations.

The day after our arrival was Sunday, and the sun gave us a kindly welcome, making all things appear bright and good. It was pleasant that Sunday morning to form part of a large congregation in the Church of St. John. Service had of course been held on board ship, and some of the children were trained to sing fairly well. But the change from this to a well-filled church, with accompaniments of organ and able choir clothed in regulation surplices, was very great. Remember too this was the first opportunity afforded us of seeing a number of our future countrymen and countrywomen assembled together. To find such a crowd of well-dressed people—well-dressed, that is, according to their several stations—earnest in their attention to the service, and evidently appreciating the sacredness of the place in which they were collected, was a sight which altogether came up to, nay, exceeded our most anxious anticipations. And as the sunlight streamed through the painted windows of the apse, we could not but feel grateful to have once more fallen amongst others who, like ourselves, were offshoots from the old country. We have attended the services in American churches, but never could dismiss the thought that though in church, that church was not in England. There was something foreign which could not be forgotten. Whether in the highly-trained quartette which took the place of our more congregational choirs; or in the congregation itself, which remained seated whilst the Te Deum was being sung to a most elaborate setting; or maybe in the delivery of the minister, which, while perhaps more correct than that of some of the clergy at home, still grated on the nerves from the pervading accentuation of the stage; from one or other or from all these causes

we never could feel quite at home. Here all was of home—homelike. The same service was read without alteration—the same hymn-books used to which we had been accustomed—the same attention paid to kneeling and standing; in short, the whole scene rendered it apparent that the Church of England and the Church of New Zealand were one and the same, undivided even by external forms.

It was pleasant, that first Sunday afternoon, to saunter through the public park, and note the numbers of well-clothed and respectable people enjoying the sunshine like ourselves. Where, it occurred to us, are the great unwashed—those unhappy beings who, through their vices or misfortunes, do not possess a Sunday suit? Certainly our first impression was, that no such class existed in this country; and subsequent experience has shown that, although there are many such hidden away in secret corners, their position is too often one of choice and not of necessity. The whole air of Christchurch breathes a solid respectability; while the park in which we are sitting, surrounded on three sides by the pretty river Avon, and on the fourth by the Christchurch College and Public Museum, gives an opportunity for all to cultivate a taste for the beautiful, and add to their stock of general knowledge. Plants and flowers from all parts of the world are acclimatized here: the surrounding woods, planted with English forest-trees, give evidence by their healthy growth that the soil and climate are congenial to their tastes and habits. But what shall we say of the weeping willows, for which the banks of the Avon are justly celebrated? They grow, as generally throughout New Zealand when planted in favourable situations, with a most luxuriant habit and to a large size. Beautiful in summer with their light green foliage, they

are scarcely less beautiful in winter when their elegant branches trail the ground. Christchurch might well be called the city of the weeping willows. But what makes Christchurch, and indeed the larger portion of Canterbury, so pleasant to the new comer, is the feeling of home which it keeps alive. It is hard to believe that so many thousand miles of sea intervene between ourselves and the old country. It is not that its general appearance can be compared to a cathedral city such as Ely, or even Southwell—it is all too new and business-like, and yet to a certain extent it possesses the repose of these. Still less can it be compared to a large manufacturing or busy commercial town at home; it is all too bright, and cheerful, and lovely. It is as though a magician had transported some of the prettiest villas from the lakes of Cumberland, and set them down, with their gardens all gay with flowers and evergreen shrubs, in an uncertain rotation along the several streets; that he had then flown to Oxford and stolen some of its Gothic architecture, to be reproduced in another form in the numerous public buildings which everywhere adorn the town; and lastly, that to fill in any gaps remaining, he had brought from Canada, or some small lake-town of the United States, a number of those pretty four-roomed wooden cottages which abound there. Such a description may seem fantastic, for Christchurch is not a collection of Cumberland villas, neither is it Oxford or any American town. It seems a realization, with a difference, of all three. To add life to the picture, tramways run along the principal streets, four-wheelers and hansom cabs, drawn by capital horses, are on the stands; a large railway station, numerous merchants' warehouses, excellent shops which would not disgrace any town at home, sawmills, engineers' and other manufacturing

establishments, are placed in the business quarter; and last, but not to be forgotten, is the handsome cathedral, designed by Sir Gilbert Scott, situated in the central square. All this will give a fair idea of Christchurch as it is, with its many churches, handsome residences, asphalt side-walks, and broad streets.

The first few days were passed in delivering some of our letters of introduction, and in taking hurried peeps at the surrounding neighbourhood. The latter included visits to Amberley and the Mount Grey Downs, to Whitecliffs, situated under the Malvern Hills, and lastly, to Leeston. Our intention before leaving England was to settle in South Canterbury, and in this we were confirmed by the advice of one who knew the country well. The little we saw of the district about Christchurch fully confirmed us in our intention. The fact is that land in so central a situation, and which is worth anything, has been taken up long ago, and now sells at such prices as to put it quite out of the power of a new arrival, unless he be very wealthy, to buy with any prospect of future success. The land which can still be bought at a comparatively reasonable rate is not worth anything as an investment, and would only lead to future disappointment and loss. The general appearance of the country, when taken as a whole, is disappointing to the casual observer. To one who has heard or read of the rich plains stretching from the Port Hills to the mountain ridges, the journey by rail from Christchurch either to Ashburton, Whitecliffs, or Amberley, is not a little disconcerting. It has been stated that the journey to Ashburton alone would be sufficient to cause an intending settler to turn tail, and re-seek his native land. But were he to do this, he would return with a greatly mistaken idea. The country around Christchurch consists of a

very unequal quality of land, ranging from the most arid and stony tussuck to the richest swamp. Unfortunately for first impressions, the rail has everywhere been carried through the poorest country, with the exception of the line from Lyttelton to Christchurch. That the amount of good land must be considerable is evident, not only from general report, but from the large amount of agricultural produce raised in the district. But it makes the intending settler shudder when he learns the value put upon such land—and not only the value put upon it, but the price at which it can be sold. Some of the fine grass country between Lyttelton and Christchurch would readily bring from 50*l.* to 60*l.* per acre. From personal knowledge we know that some of the fat Leeston swamps would bring from 25*l.* to 30*l.* per acre; nor would the price be less for any of the more highly cultivated and really productive land in the district, some of which experience has shown to be capable of producing an average of from forty to forty-five bushels of wheat per acre. But from this class of land we fall almost immediately to the cold clays of the Mount Grey Downs, which are dear at 10*l.*; or the more shingly plains, for which 5*l.*, or even 3*l.*, would prove equally costly. These were some of the reasons which induced us to leave many kind friends in Christchurch, and push south with the idea of completing a previously formed intention. The following chapters will give the reader some insight into the causes which have rendered good land in North Canterbury so dear, and are now tending gradually to raise properties in South Canterbury to the same level.

CHAPTER IV.

SOCIETY.

THE subject of "Society" is dangerous ground, for society contains many gradations within itself, each claiming to be more or less its true representative. To one standing, as it were, upon an eminence, and taking a telescopic view of the globe, how puny and contemptible the narrow conceptions of mere cliquism must appear when compared to the "Society" of the entire human race. The late Bishop of Lichfield, formerly Primate of New Zealand, realized the great idea of one comprehensive human family; and both by preaching and in conversation endeavoured to promote a wider-reaching unity. In the course of a life passed in hard work, he once preached in the four quarters of the globe within the short space of six months. "The longer I live," he used to say, "the smaller I think the world." Truth was, that the longer he lived, the more he recognized the necessity of an all-pervading Christianity; and, as he did so, the kinder and more tender he became to each member of what we call "Society." He went forth in an apostolic spirit to approach and reconcile the English and American churches; but was, whilst attempting to do this, not at all to be imposed upon by the hollow and specious fallacies of every speculative "Down Easter."

The word Society, as a prefix to the present chapter,

must be taken in its primary and more general sense. It must be taken as meaning "the persons collectively considered who live in any region or any period," rather than as "a number of persons associated for any temporary or permanent objects."

Let no one coming to New Zealand seek to emulate the fanaticism of the recluse, or expect to find the haunts of the social butterfly. The colonists, as a rule, are a hardworking, painstaking, ordinary sort of people, adverse to "side," and esteeming each other more by the rule of personal worth than by that of mere money. Only those who have seen both sides of the picture, not only as exhibited here but in other countries, can estimate to the full the effect upon society of such conditions.

We remember a friend some time since expressing the opinion that New Zealand was like old England one hundred years ago, combining with this all the advantages of modern improvement. This was a realistic remark, and in the main true. It would be absurd to claim for New Zealand that its sons and daughters are individually better, in any sense, than those of our countrymen to be found elsewhere. But this is certain, that society is at present simpler in its habits than at home, perhaps because it cannot be otherwise. As a rule it does not possess the means for too much self-indulgence, but on the other hand it does not regret the want of them. People are content to be as they are. Busy five days in the week, they are grateful for one day's holiday, with what is left after Sunday duties are performed, thrown in. Rejoicing in a brilliant atmosphere, their needs are few. When occasion requires, they do not object to black their own boots, and expect new comers to do the same.

Here as elsewhere, society is progressive. The days when settlers had to do everything for themselves are long since past. We know one lady who, with her sister, was partially brought up in a big tub: that is to say, her mother, when busy with household matters, could find no better place wherein to keep her precious offspring from mischief, and away from the swift stream which flowed in front of the door. We have heard of a house which consisted of one solitary apartment, and where, when bed-time came, the only means of securing a necessary privacy was "lights out." We have seen the sketch of an interior whose walls sloped inward like those of a tent. Here the young ladies had to dress for balls, their beds being stretchers, whilst saddles and bridles hung above the pillows.

But these things are of the past. People live and dress now very much as they do elsewhere. The houses are comfortable and well-furnished, with servants to attend to the heavier domestic duties. Servants, however, are not the well-trained retainers of the old country. They are chiefly Irish, and they arrive in the colony quite untrained material. A new hand is usually at a considerable discount, and owing to neglected antecedents it is sometimes difficult to know how to begin to teach. Picture a girl fresh from the south of Ireland, who knows no fire but one of peat, to whom the coal-scuttle and black-lead brush convey no meaning. Under such circumstances something of this kind would occur, as in truth it did. "Kathleen, go and fill the coal-scuttle." To whom Kathleen willingly but helplessly replied, "An' please, mam, shall I fill it at the pump?" Another amiable young person was once told to make some toast. This she attempted to do by cutting the bread into slices, placing the slices in the toast-rack, and laying the whole

before the kitchen fire to cook. But many of these girls in a short time make good servants. A few prove hopelessly unteachable, and what becomes of the latter must ever remain a mystery. Perhaps their only function in life is to become mothers to a future generation, whom we may hope necessity will train to be more useful members of society than their parents. But, good as some of these girls become, they never soar to any great heights. They wash well, sometimes cook well, often work hard, but rarely care to master the higher branches of the *cuisine*, or take kindly to needlework. They want method, and this is presumably to be attributed to absence of discipline when young. But, after all, it is not difficult to find any number of good girls quite up to colonial requirements. Our ladies are in the habit of supplying any deficiencies, and admirably as a rule they do so. It is a great advantage to any lady managing an establishment in the colony, to understand baking, dairying, jam-making, and general cookery; also to have well-defined views about clear-starching and poultry. If our fair friends at home understand all these things, and add to them a general knowledge of gardening, with a capacity for making their own dresses, they are in a fair way towards becoming good settlers' wives.

Society in New Zealand is probably fully up to the standard of an English country-side. Our knowledge of the country is in this respect confined to Canterbury, and it must be left to others to give a more extended experience. The gentry are generally descended from families of good position, and it would perhaps astonish not a few to find that the conversation frequently turns upon mutual acquaintances and their doings in the old country. This

makes life very pleasant, and helps to maintain old ties. The daily press tends to keep up the connexion; its columns each morning containing telegrams of the leading events of the day before in Europe or America, with the addition, two or three times a month, of more extended details, brought by mail steamers *viâ* San Francisco or Melbourne. Lawn tennis and cricket flourish during the summer months, whilst during the short winter several packs of harriers make the running. Picnic, dances, athletic sports, agricultural shows, coursing, and endless race-meetings fill up the intervals, and would, if followed up in their entirety, leave but little leisure for more serious occupations. It must not be expected that a new comer will be able to indulge to the full in the pleasant society which surrounds him, or to the extent which "old chums" can safely do. The former has not only a business to attend to, but he has both to learn and make it. Pleasure should at all times be tempered with moderation, but more especially in the colonies, where a man has to work hard and late for a living. We should be sorry, therefore, if any were to conclude from the list of amusements just given, that in New Zealand he had found some new Utopia where the ordinary trials and anxieties of life do not exist. Our recreations are mentioned for the purpose of showing that, after hard work, facilities are at hand by which a well-earned holiday may be enjoyed.

One thing is very noticeable in colonial life, namely, that never, if it can be avoided, are long-dated, or fixed, invitations issued. This may probably be accounted for by the greater freedom of social intercourse which exists, when compared with that of an older and more thickly-populated country. The custom no doubt originated in the fact that visitors were scarce, and that every one

who happened to show his face was welcome. Now that the country is more thickly peopled, the same feeling continues. Old hands may be found who lament the restrictions of the present day, but to the greater number these restrictions are light enough. All that is required from a man is not to come to dinner in shirt-sleeves or collarless, with hair unkempt, himself and his clothes redolent with the grease and dust of a sheep-yard. And here it may be remarked, that New Zealand affords queer samples of dress. During the day a suit of many patches and of nondescript colour, for sun and wear have had too great a "down" on that suit for much colour to survive; anon a metamorphosis—a respectable individual attired in the garb of civilized society. The fact is, colonists are workers, not only in name but in deed. Not gentlemen farmers, but men who have entered upon their present life as a real business. As such their men treat them, and, however friendly all may be together, they know as well as possible that between the master and themselves it is a matter of pounds, shillings, and pence. Each year we get from home a welcome Christmas-box; each year that box contains a supply of dogskin gloves. The history of these is shortly as follows: one pair goes to decorate our hands when driving on the sharp winter mornings; another one or two go to a friend, unprovided with good English dogskin gloves; the bulk of the shipment, after serving a few days' apprenticeship, descends to the hedger to protect his hands from gorse, or to the boy who is a smart-ratcher, to put those vermin off the human scent.

Most men, and ladies too, would in this country rather jump upon a horse after lunch, on an impromptu ride to some neighbouring station, than go by regular invita-

tion. An invitation, if any, would be given somewhat in this wise. "Oh, you had better come home with us," or "What are you doing to-morrow? You had better bring your people over to us." Of course meaning good quarters for the night, and this without any packing requisite! Every convenience will be found. Brushes, combs, and other toilette necessaries are always in store, and placed as a matter of course in the bedroom. Believe us when we state that this is not the worst way of visiting friends.

The consideration of this freehanded hospitality leads to another point; we would urge upon those who intend to visit or settle in New Zealand, the desirability of bringing letters of introduction. How often has the remark been made, and especially by young men, "I have lots of letters in my portmanteau, but I don't intend to deliver them; it's such a bore." Those who make such foolish statements must either have brought letters to the wrong sort of people, and found out their mistake, or they must estimate at little worth the value of their friends' kind intentions. Letters of introduction at once place the new arrival in a comfortable position. The effect these have upon an old colonist is, that "he is one of us." To those who prefer pothouse or billiard-room to good society, we would say, "By all means, you duffer, keep your letters in your portmanteau." To those who would enjoy society, we would say, "By all means deliver your letters; they will procure you a hearty welcome." It does not much matter to what particular class we belong, letters of introduction are always useful. The difference between emigrating to Buenos Ayres and New Zealand is very marked, or rather we ought to say was very marked, because it is some years now since we visited the former place. But

at that time there was an almost total absence of ladies in "the camp," and consequently men deteriorated rapidly. In New Zealand ladies are everywhere, consequently the rules of good society prevail.

One of those circumstances which add to the present, and will maintain the future prosperity of this country, is the number of solid yeomen which it possesses. A large percentage of our farmers is formed of men who have fought a good fight, and are now in absolute possession of their farms, untrammelled by mortgages or other liabilities. They are men who possess from one or two hundred, to two or three thousand acres. In this respect alone how closely New Zealand follows the old country! In the latter it is hard, now-a-days, to say where one class ends and another begins; from the peer to the mechanic, the dividing-line is everywhere broken by intermarriage. Just so out here, between the largest run-holder and the smallest "cockatoo" it would be difficult to draw any clear distinction. Of course between the two extremes a great difference exists, but then extremes have a happy knack of meeting, somewhere, we suppose, about the middle.

One of the great charms of an agricultural or pastoral life lies in the power of getting men of the right stamp to work for us and with us. It may safely be said that there are many men of this description in the colony, and in sufficient quantities to make such a condition between workmen and employer, when sought for, obtainable. In old days people did the ordinary work of the year themselves. When harvest or any extra labour was required, the farmer had to trust to a migratory population, a population which had no interest in the work but that which depended upon receiving a large cheque. Now-a-days the introduction

of machinery makes us less dependent upon promiscuous labour. The good all-round farm labourer and well proved ploughman are beginning to be appreciated. These men not only take an intelligent interest in their work, but by staying upon the same farm have the satisfaction of seeing the result of their previous labour. When we consider that the success of any crop depends upon every operation being carried out correctly from first to last, it must be evident that permanent labour is better than any advantage which can be offered by temporary hire. It is just the same with respect to the sheep stations. The managers and shepherds to whom the care of the sheep is intrusted are generally men of good character, whose connexion with the station has been of long standing, and who are thoroughly up in the working of the flock. To become a head shepherd a man has usually to serve a long apprenticeship. To become a good manager is no easy task.

Another class of labourers requires mention, this is the peripatetic class. In this colony these are known by the name of "Swaggers," or "Sundowners:" swaggers, because they carry a swag or bundle on their backs containing a blanket and their other worldly possessions; sundowners, because they never approach a habitable place before sundown, lest they should be requested to take a further stroll. And still these wanderers must be divided into two categories—the one honest and hardworking, making a good livelihood by alternate shearing, harvesting, and threshing, which, if Australia happen to be included in the circuit, will give more than ten months good returns out of the twelve; the other idle, "blowing," undesirable, sponging alike on the runholder, the farmer, and the hotel-keeper —an individual who won't work unless he is obliged, and

sometimes not even then; a disgrace to his kind, and fit only to be classed with the "casuals" of an English workhouse.

Let us conclude this chapter with two anecdotes. A friend put up two or three of these gentry for the night. The next day, as it rained he still housed and fed them. The third day they had to go on their usual pilgrimage. Some hours later, passing along with a load of wool, one of his drays stuck fast in a river-bed. Our two loafers happened to be there: "Lend us a hand," said he, "to get the drays out of the river." "Not we," they replied, "unless we get paid for our work." Two fellows, in dry autumn, were resting by the road side. While smoking their pipes, they happened to set fire to the "tussuck," or dry native grass. One ran for his life. The other, when asked by a passing shepherd to assist in putting out the fire, which by that time amounted to a conflagration, with the fate of twenty-four cornstacks depending upon the exertions of the next few minutes, responded, "Not I. You go to h—ll!"

When we know these and other well-authenticated facts, which might be told, can the colonists be blamed if they refuse to give a night's lodging to one, whom people at home might consider a belated traveller, but whom they know to be an incorrigible loafer?

CHAPTER V.

STATION LIFE.

SHEEP-FARMING may be defined as the one great idea which induces many young men to seek New Zealand. With equal truth it may be asserted that the fulfilment of this idea is, in the generality of cases, next to impossible. Impossible, so to speak, when the capital which the majority has at command is taken into consideration. Sheep-farming necessitates the employment of a large amount of money.

We have little experience of sheep-runs, except in two countries, the River Plate and New Zealand. Of Australia we know nothing, but the experience gained in the first two countries is presumably applicable to the fifth quarter of the globe. Some few years ago the largest and most prosperous sheep-runs in the River Plate were worked by capitalists, either retired from or in active business, assisted by good managers for the conduct of the necessary detail. At that time young men taking a small run were apt to pay too many visits to the capital—a greedy absorbent of hard-won profits. The earnings of the sheep-run, consisting as they do in the increase of stock and sale of wool, are dependent upon the market value of one article; and should this be depreciated below its nominal value for two or three years, the small capitalist is less able to stand the brunt

of such depreciation than the large proprietor. His expenses are proportionately greater—his capital less: where the one could swim the other would sink. Taking next the position of flock-masters in New Zealand, it will be found that the majority of runs are occupied by men of comparatively large means. To buy them out would entail the expenditure of thousands; in some cases of hundreds of thousands. They form an institution which has risen side by side with the growth of the colony. Their vested interests are now great, but to attain their position they have had to fight hard, and see many of their co-workers fail in the struggle. Those of the early settlers who have succeeded, have merited their success. If to-day they can send their sons to an English University, it is because they have battled, and won a well-earned victory. The man who in early times started from Christchurch, himself the driver of his own bullock team, his dray containing what was to him a large capital, perhaps almost his all, who, against the advice of friends, forded comparatively unknown and oftentimes most dangerous rivers, and at last reached the land of his selection, deserves some meed of praise, and a solid recognition in his present life. And when the land was found and occupied—when bales of wool, the product of his toil, had to be shipped by himself and his fellow-workers, in small boats on a rough coast, in all weathers, and under hardships which caused many to succumb, surely such a man, although working for himself, did much at the same time towards the development of his adopted country.

Perhaps ere long sheep farms on a small scale will pay better than they have hitherto done, in consequence of the refrigerating process for the export of meat, which is now being gradually developed. This will

cause a better demand for fat sheep, and no doubt a considerable rise in their value. Some years ago, when travelling in the States, we found that sides of beef could be bought in Texas at from 3*d.* to 3½*d.* a pound. Butchers in England were at that time charging from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 1*d.* a pound. It did not require much foresight to arrive at the conclusion that in these days of rapid improvement and invention some method would be found to approach the 3*d.* to 1*s.* The event has justified the prognostication. By a similar reasoning it is not difficult to foresee that sooner or later mutton, which the farmer is to-day selling here at 2*d.*, will find its way in considerable quantities to the home markets. The quality of New Zealand mutton is excellent, and no permanent difficulty can arise on that score. No doubt many of our flocks are grown for their wool without much attention being paid to the carcase; but once a demand for a good quality of mutton sets in, the supply will in a few years become ample.

When considering the value put upon sheep-runs, even old settlers are sometimes deceived. During the present week the largest auction of runs which ever took place in the country was held in Otago. Canterbury runholders generally considered the runs in Otago not worth having. The value of the properties was, in their estimation, destroyed by rabbits; no adequate stock of sheep could be raised. Much to our astonishment; and presumably to that of many others in South Canterbury, the sale alluded to gave the following results. The annual rental realized was 68,854*l.* The previous rental had been 24,659*l.* The upset price was 37,216*l.* Three runs only, out of one hundred and seventy, were left unsold. The price given may have been too high; the purchasers may have over-estimated the value of the leases; but after

making due allowance for such contingencies, it would seem that the sale represented an important and permanent increase in the value of pastoral property. The following extracts taken from the local press on the subject, would point to the same conclusion.

In writing of the sale of these lands the *Timaru Herald* observes: "The competition seems to have been just about equally keen for all the subdivisions of each run, and purchasers who were bent upon securing the whole of a large run, had to pay as high a price for the last subdivision of it as the first. Let us take as an illustration run 261, formerly occupied by Sir Dillon Bell, at a rental of 852*l.* This run was subdivided into six runs, namely, 261 and 261 A, B, C, D, and E, to be let on terms varying from five to eight years. Sir Dillon Bell was evidently determined to keep the whole of his run if he could; and he succeeded in buying all the subdivisions; but he had to pay for them 400*l.*, 147*l.*, 265*l.*, 405*l.*, 505*l.*, and 405*l.*, respectively, amounting in all to a new rental of 2127*l.* In this case the competition became keener as the sale proceeded, Sir Dillon Bell having to pay more for the remoter parts of the original run than for those nearer the homestead. . . . . And so it went on throughout the sale, the old lessees bought back the whole of their runs in a good many instances; but there was not a single instance where by securing a particular subdivision a runholder got the rest below their value." The reason for mentioning this sale is to show that in 1882, notwithstanding all said to the contrary, runs have their value, and that the present occupiers perhaps understand their value best.

Sheep-runs in Canterbury are held under somewhat mixed conditions. The run proper is held on lease from the Crown: but numerous facilities have been given to

the runholders, and in fact to any other colonist, to secure large areas of freehold land upon the runs. These facilities have been used in many cases for the purpose of what is called "gridironing" the country; that is, runholders have bought and made freehold, first of all, all those sections lying contiguous to their homesteads, accessible to water, or possessing valuable frontages. They then left the back country to take care of itself, feeling pretty certain that the latter would not be so valuable to any as to themselves. They were very right in doing so. In a country where manhood—or rather, a short residential suffrage—is permitted, what protection can the lessees of Government land expect for the capital which they have invested, except that better private security which the law and their own position allowed them to adopt when turning leasehold runs into more or less freehold estates? Everybody knows full well the power of a popular cry, how irresistible it may be in its action, how unjust in its immediate effects. Let a demagogue put forward a specious idea—the masses are almost sure to follow. In New Zealand the demagogue has shouted, "War to the runholder! give the people their land." What then could men do but protect their property so far as was possible—their own, if not in fact, yet almost entirely so in equity, from the greater value their exertions had given to a previous desert, and by the cost of all the improvements which had been put upon it? When the popular cry is raised, "The soil belongs to the people," all that the people can fairly demand is to have a chance of buying as much land as they can. At the same time they must not expect to find the value of land standing still. They must not expect to find that they can buy land in 1882 at the same prices that they could in 1860.

Railways, roads, and bridges have been constructed, tussuck plains have become large towns; and steamers glide daily into ports where formerly only a few sailing-ships occasionally put in an unwilling appearance. Let the people buy what Government land they can in the open market, and at the market price of the day; but it cannot be tolerated that the world should be kept stationary for persons who hesitate to do now what they could well have afforded to do some years ago. The men who have habitually knocked down large cheques in beer-houses, never tried to buy land when it was cheap; and but few now-a-days, when, although large cheques be scarcer, wages are still good, try to save money for such a purpose. The land here, as elsewhere, remains in the hands of those who have the greater forbearance; who in their several degrees occupy a respectable position upon the social ladder; and who, having secured by greater thrift a certain amount of capital, employ it to the best advantage. It is useless for radical and sentimental politicians to talk to hard toilers in a new country of the disabilities and injustice which everywhere beset the path of the working man. Such claptrap is simply a product of the lowest form of political organization. We feel it to be so, because we mix with working-men. We are in the habit of seeing many who for lack of education, and misusing the money which they possess—throw opportunities to the winds. We know that a working-man in New Zealand can, if he is saving, secure an honourable position both for himself and his family. We have often found that a man who is to-day trading upon our charity might have been richer than ourselves. Are we then to listen to those who, having misused their opportunities, pose before us in the light

of injured individuals? Surely not. Here, as at home, a Socialistic agitation with regard to land, means robbing the industrious to reward the idle. Exceptions must always occur. The man struck down by illness or accident—the widow with a large family left dependent on her care—the poor orphan—such as these ought here and everywhere to obtain the sympathies of their more fortunate neighbours.

It has been asserted by some of the extreme radicals of the colony, that Government did wrong to sell any of the land in the country as freeholds. The land belongs to the people, they say, and it ought from the first to have been let on long leases, at the end of which the people would be able to re-let it at greatly increased rentals owing to the improvements which would have been placed upon it. They have suggested that for the future no further sales should be made, but that a system of leases should be substituted. It is evident that such a policy would be suicidal, and no other course would be likely to retard the advancement of the colony to the same extent. The suggestion militates against the commonest principles of political economy, and nothing could tend more to restrain the importation of fresh private capital. Security could only be given to lenders on perishable improvements or floating stock. Fortunately the idea is never likely to become law; and even were it to do so, all the best land is already freehold.

We have endeavoured to show that the power of possessing a run now falls to the lot of the capitalist only, or to a body of smaller capitalists banded together. Years ago every run in New Zealand, except in the Maori country of the North Island, had, to use the colonial phraseology, been "taken up." To-day a new comer must buy out the present occupier. To do

this requires capital. Many runs are for sale at the present time, especially in the back country; some few on the seaboard districts. The reason for these runs being for sale depends on various causes. One man will say, "I am old; if I were ten years younger nothing would induce me to sell my run." Another lets his run go bit by bit for agricultural purposes, getting a very fair price for every acre of freehold which he sells. Some desire to part with their properties, either because they have families growing up for whom they wish to provide, or because the responsibility of borrowed money with its contingent anxieties makes them feel that by selling they would be in a more comfortable position.

Many of the chief evils consequent upon the possession of some of the large estates have accrued from the proprietor wishing to secure too soon what would be considered in England an enormous freehold. A man rented a run from Government, say at from 6*d.* to 9*d.* per sheep. Finding at a given period that the lands, of which he held a conditional lease, were open to public selection, what did he do under the circumstances? Fearing that all the valuable land under his lease was about to be bought up by new settlers, he felt bound to protect himself by purchasing, at the Government price of 2*l.* per acre, that part of the property which he considered most valuable. But a simple calculation will show that he added greatly to his liabilities by so doing. The purchase may have been made with the idea of selling again to the farmer at an enhanced price, and of cutting up the estate into smaller blocks; but times may have been bad; settlement did not come so rapidly as was expected. In the interim, heavy rent or interest had to be found

for that portion of the run which had been made freehold.

Many people in this country, whether farmers, speculators, or runholders have tried to become large landed proprietors, without estimating the probable cost. Land, no doubt, is valuable property, especially in a new country where its increment is exceptionally rapid. But the pertinent question is—can holders of large freeholds keep them until they become generally salable or available for agricultural purposes? If they can—and in many cases they do so—their fortunes are made. If they cannot do so, their position is difficult. It must be understood that many sheep-runs are held on quite as firm a tenure as properties at home. There are stations on the freehold of which not a single pound is borrowed, and where the proprietor lives almost the life of an easy-going English squire.

It may be taken that the present value of a leasehold run in Canterbury, including goodwill and improvement, is from 1*l.* to 15*s.* per sheep kept. Thus a run of 20,000 sheep would stand in at about 17,500*l.* to-day, perhaps at more. A great deal depends on situation. Where a freehold exists, the cost would be increased in proportion to the extent and value of the freehold land. The price for the latter under the hills would range at from about 3*l.* to 5*l.* per acre; but some runholders possess far more valuable land, which is better adapted for agricultural than pastoral purposes. In addition to the sum to be paid to the outgoing tenant, an annual rental would accrue on the leasehold to Government, say at the rate of from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per sheep, according to locality. The annual clip would do well if it averaged 6 lbs. per fleece of a fair stapled merino wool, yielding at home about 11*d.* to 12*d.* per lb. The cost of shipping from

a New Zealand port to London may be estimated at about $1\frac{5}{4}d.$ per lb. The cost of getting the wool from the interior to the seaboard will vary from $\frac{3}{8}d.$ to $\frac{3}{4}d.$ per lb. according to distance. Shearing ranges at from 15*s.* to 18*s.* per 100 sheep. What the incidental expenses of management may be depends entirely upon the natural aptitude of the runholder for business. Taking the above rough estimate as something tangible on which to base a calculation, it will be found that the working of a run carrying 20,000 sheep would be somewhat as follows:—

Gross return in London on 120,000 lbs. of wool, say at $11\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb.				£5750	0	0
Interest on original outlay of 17,500*l.*, at 6 per cent. per annum	£1050	0	0			
Rent at 1*s.* 4*d.* per sheep .	1330	0	0			
Cost of shipping and charges at home, at $1\frac{3}{4}d.$ per lb. .	875	0	0			
Forwarding to port of shipment, $\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb.	250	0	0			
Shearing at 17*s.* per 100 . .	170	0	0			
				3675	0	0
Balance . . .				£2075	0	0

From this apparent balance all costs of shepherding, mustering, and incidental expenses must be deducted. These it is difficult to estimate; but it is a well-managed run where the net profits amount to over twelve per cent., including interest on capital. Taking then twelve per cent. as the basis of profit, including interest on the original outlay, about 1000*l.* a year would be left for the various expenses mentioned above, the cost of living and feeding all hands employed, and personal expenditure of various kinds. There would be also some return

from the sale of surplus stock; but from runs of this description the cast-off stock is never very valuable, and it would be safer to assume that all such moneys will be required for maintenance and improvements. The above calculation is based on the supposition that no part of the capital employed is borrowed. The profits will necessarily be reduced, in proportion to the amount of borrowed money used in working the run.

This calculation has been shown to a friend, himself manager of a New Zealand station. He agrees with the figures given as being the most accurate estimate which can be arrived at for the purposes of general calculation. He thinks, however, that it may not be clearly understood that the above estimate alludes solely to the run proper, without taking account of any freehold property. It must be evident, upon a very superficial examination, that the possession of freehold property includes a larger outlay than that contemplated above. If 3*l.* to 5*l.* per acre be invested in freehold land, some extra return for the increased capital expended must be obtained. This is generally found in the growth of turnips, and the raising of cross-bred sheep, half Merino and half Lincoln or Leicester, to supply the butcher. The system is peculiar, probably, to the runs of New Zealand, and no trustworthy estimate of its profits can be given; but its growth has arisen from the conformation of the country. The runs proper are confined almost entirely to the mountain ranges, which can support nothing but an ordinary well-constituted Merino. Each runholder when he bought freehold land did so on the low-lying downs or the flats situated between his homestead and the sea. These freehold lands he has to utilize by raising a sheep which will produce both mutton and

wool. These runholders may be considered as carrying on a twofold business, namely, that of wool-growers and producers of mutton. The homesteads attached to their properties are for the most part pretty and attractive, situated under sheltering hills, where conifers and deciduous trees grow with great luxuriance. Generally a well-shaded verandah surrounds the house; its supports covered with every variety of creeper, from the monthly rose and fragrant jasmine to the luscious fig. Apples, pears, peaches, and all the luxuries usually to be found at an English country seat, everywhere abound; and if the gardens are not always so neat as they would be at home, a more generous climate gives a result far in excess of what can be produced in England even by greater care.

Geraniums, verbenas, fuchsias, dahlias, and the lemon-scented verbena are left outside the winter through. The passion-flower climbs the trellises, and even occasionally thrusts itself through the chinks in some downstairs floors. Amidst sheltering plantations of fir may be found the ubiquitous lawn-tennis ground. The greatest difficulty to a new comer is to realize that the growth of the conifers and deciduous trees is the result of only fourteen years. Previously the blue gum, with its many species, generally known in Europe as the eucalyptus globulus, held supreme sway; but its roots, like those of the ash, were found too exhaustive, and it is now relegated to positions in which it can do the greatest amount of good with the least possibility of harm. Still it has been a useful tree. Without its quick growth it would have been impossible to secure shade or shelter in New Zealand.

Station life is often regarded as an occupation which made no demands for extra labour. It is, no doubt,

true that those whose business is chiefly confined to certain periods of the year, can find more time than the farmer for taking a run to town, or for even more extended absences. But the runholder's is an occupation which must be attended to. It is for him to have an experienced eye for stock, and also to realize the capacity of the land for producing a certain quality of wool. Beginning on some runs in November, and not finishing until January or February, the various flocks have to be brought down from the hillsides for shearing. Lambs have to be weaned, the breeding ewes to be put together; and one portion or another of the flock is perpetually passing under the master's eye. On many stations, added to these ordinary duties, large areas of land are laid down each year both to turnips and grass. It is no uncommon thing to hear of 2000 or 3000 acres being seeded down, and 1200 to 1500 acres being put into turnips in one year.

And yet, despite its laboriousness, station life is very pleasant, at least if it can be estimated by the cheery faces and ready welcome which everywhere meet the guest. A man with 60,000*l.* invested in sheep and land can enjoy life on a New Zealand run, to all intents and purposes as much as any country squire in England, and probably more than a flâneur of the London streets.

CHAPTER VI.

ON THE FARM.

It has always been difficult to get a large body of farmers to work together, even for an object which affects their common interest. Still more difficult has it been to reduce the practice of agriculture to anything like unity of system. Farming consists not only of well ascertained facts, but relies for its success upon determined results. We well remember, as a student of history, being much struck by a remark made by Sharon Turner relative to the departure of Mary Queen of Scots, from France—that she embarked, nobody denied; but on what day, whether of the month or week, she did so, remains a matter of uncertainty. Each of her suite gave a different date and time in their journals, which have come down to us. If, argued Sharon Turner, such discrepancies occur in matters of fact, how difficult is the position of a writer, when analyzing the more doubtful motives which have produced history! The moral is not far to seek. If it be difficult to agree upon matters of fact, how much more difficult to coalesce upon matters of opinion. We do not think that farmers should be too hastily blamed for absence of cohesion or enterprise: to those unaccustomed to the work, the difficulty of changing a system already introduced upon a farm can hardly be

appreciated. As one field after another comes under its ordinary rotation, the farmer naturally hesitates before adopting an experiment which might probably throw his whole management into confusion. True, he may make trials of new manures, and other artificial stimulants which happen to be brought under his notice, but it is yet an open question whether the use of many of these will pay, or ought to be adopted on a large scale. It is doubtful whether the farmer of the present day has not, by stimulating the immediate producing capacity of his land, and by copious overdrafts upon its power, placed himself in a worse position than his predecessors, who limited their practice to a good dressing of farmyard manure, with the occasional assistance of a sound and wholesome fallow. This is not positively asserted to be the case, but it is a matter well worthy of consideration. Any positive assertion that fallowing is necessary would not prove that it is so; at the same time it is acknowledged to be of the utmost importance in the garden; and if in the garden, why not on the farm? But the proverb, "Tot homines, tot sententiæ," still holds good. In any case, it may be asserted that the man who undertakes to manipulate land, if he would understand it so as to make it answer to his call, must treat it as he would a reasonable being. Men sometimes require a rest, and the farmer ought occasionally to give his land, so to speak, its Sunday out. Probably the land, if it could talk, would tell many a farmer that he had given it more than it could take, and that if still more were given it must die of surfeit; that it wanted rest to digest its food, after which it would make up for lost time. It has been said that sermons are to be found in stones, and if in stones surely in land. "Turn me over," the land would sometimes seem to say, "and let me

drink in the wintry showers and hoary frosts. Let me digest the good things with which I am satiated, and you will find me ever grateful." In any country, manuring, although acknowledged to be necessary, must be done systematically; and should never be over-done. To manure in Canterbury to any great extent, either with artificials or from the farmyard, would not at present pay, even if such a practice were suited to the climate—which may be doubted. The latter is often so dry that, however valuable manure may be on a small scale, as in gardens where copious waterings can be given, its effects are liable to be lost on a farm should a dry season supervene. In a dry season the farmyard application may do harm, owing to the unrotted straws acting as so many funnels for the emission of a valuable moisture. This danger would more particularly apply to arable land; a good dressing always does good to pastures, especially if applied just before the winter rains set in. But arable land must be renovated, in New Zealand as elsewhere. The difficulty consists in the method by which fresh food is to be applied; probably the best way is to take a little extra pains to secure a good turnip crop, to be eaten off by sheep netted on the land. The effect of such a treatment would be seen for two or three years, and it possesses the advantage that the manuring crop itself is, in this country, a paying one. The cost of putting in turnips is limited to two ploughings, in most cases only one, to harrowing until a fine tilth is secured, and to sowing half a pound of seed broadcast to the acre, covering with a stroke of the chain or ordinary harrows. No further cultivation is necessary, unless the crop fail; in that case the land may have to be again harrowed and sown. Last season a turnip-field of twenty-four acres, in this neighbourhood, kept five hundred sheep,

folded, from the 3rd May to the 12th August. It is not, however, the ordinary practice to fold sheep. As a rule a paddock of one hundred acres, or more, is sown with turnips, and when the crop is ripe a large quantity of sheep is turned into it. These of course run over the whole field, first eating the tops and other green food, next the roots, and lastly the shells. The worst feature of such a system is, that the sheep always camp in one spot, and the good which they do is not evenly distributed over the entire surface.

Mr. Hering, one of the many farmers sent to the colony from England to obtain information for the benefit of those at home, gives to farmers in New Zealand the following salutary advice—the extract is selected from one of his letters which was published in the *New Zealand Country Journal*, for March, 1882 :—"How long," he says, "you will be able to continue to produce heavy and remunerative crops with the exhaustive practice pursued, time must tell. The rotations of crops by all large proprietors is thought to be amply sufficient to restore the fertility of the soil. It may prolong its departure, but it is certainly a serious mistake to suppose that the annual removal of phosphates, potash, lime, and ammonia, in grain and cattle sold off the farm, without replacing them by the application of manure can go on *ad infinitum*." But an almost virgin soil is wonderfully recuperative, much more so than a person accustomed only to that of the Old World could imagine; and we are of opinion that if farmers in New Zealand were at present to confine themselves to good and deep cultivation, with alternate sowings of clover and turnips between the white crops, no further manuring would be necessary for years to come.

It is most difficult for an intending settler to estimate

what his chances of success as a farmer in this country would be. Success depends upon many radical causes. It is needless to speak here of personal adaptability—a point which can be entered into more fully when considering the class of people best fitted for emigration. For the moment it is more to the purpose to consider the condition and prospects of farming as at present existing in the colony. Thoroughly to understand these conditions, it must be recollected that the two centres of immigration in the Southern Island were Christchurch and Dunedin, the one the capital of Canterbury, the other of Otago. The two capitals are distant from each other about 200 miles. Settlement radiated almost simultaneously from each, and has but recently met, about half way between the two centres. The point of contact, or South Canterbury, is in fact one of the most sparsely inhabited of the grain-raising districts in the colony, when compared with its productive capabilities. This is owing solely to the chapter of accidents. For many years there was no shipping port between Lyttelton, the port of Christchurch, and Port Chalmers, the port of Dunedin. To-day two intermediate harbours exist—those of Timaru and Oamaru. The country behind these latter ports embraces many thousands of acres of good agricultural land—and also includes some of the largest sheep-runs. Each year more of the produce of the immediate district goes direct to England from these two ports. While possessing swamps nearly, if not quite, as rich as those situated at Kaiapoi and around the Ellesmere Lake, it includes a large area of agricultural land of a strangely uniform character, capable of supporting a far larger population than either the better known Canterbury Plains or the mountain slopes which lie behind Dunedin. But at present Christchurch retains

its pre-eminence, and Dunedin is essentially the business city of the colony. Further north and further south the same principle of radiation is going on. Settlers in South Canterbury are in the happy position of just beginning to feel the effects of a strong competition between the northern and southern capitals. They find that being at the point of contact will both stimulate their energies and prove of great benefit to the sale of their products.

Whilst land of really good quality in the more settled districts near Christchurch commands from 20*l.* to 25*l.* an acre, very good land may still be bought in South Canterbury at about 9*l.*, and that too within moderate distance of a railway. In some localities it might perhaps be obtained for 5*l.*, but in such cases the situation would be further removed from all necessary conveniences, and make the marketing of produce more expensive. The prices above named seem altogether too high for the pockets or ideas of many an intending settler. Most people when emigrating expect to find an "el Dorado." As a fact, they only arrive in countries where a good competence may be secured. The Western States of North America, with their cheap land and apparent prosperity, offer greater attractions. Each intending settler must act as he thinks best for his future interest; but before he decides irretrievably one way or the other, the following considerations may be suggested. In America land is cheaper, and from its greater surface produces a larger proportion of the world's supply of wheat; but settlement in that country, even under such seemingly better conditions than New Zealand can offer, has its drawbacks. Each acre tilled does not yield so much produce. Life is far harder than in this colony. Society is totally different from that of home, possessing as distinctive

a character as that which exists between one of our country sides and the rapidly growing suburbs of some manufacturing cities. The climate is not so equable. To most Englishmen one great objection would be, that in the Western States they must forego their nationality, and live under a foreign flag. Settlement in Canada may be far preferable to settlement in the States; but Lower Canada offers few inducements to the farmer, and Upper Canada—or more especially the now developing districts farther west, possessing, maybe, many attractions for the young and active—can for the family man hardly bear comparison as a place of residence with the better climate and more settled districts of New Zealand. We have been in Canada, but not in Manitoba. The former is a pleasant place for a man with a fixed income to live in; but the long winters preclude it from being a country in which the thews and sinews of the farmer can be used to the greatest profit. What would the Canadian agriculturist say to a country where his teams can be utilized 300 days out of 365, as in Canterbury. In New Zealand ladies can drive beneath a bright sun, and in an open carriage, the winter through; the summer is not too hot; the society is essentially English; and the soil under right cultivation yields a good return. But in the greater matter of choosing a new home, as in the minor crises of life, each must decide according to his individual taste. We must not be considered as advising any one to emigrate; such a responsibility would be too great. No doubt the great stream will be attracted for years to come to the North American continent, and it is well that it should be so, for New Zealand is not the home for the impecunious—vested interests are too large; but where money centres, there money is more readily made.

Many persons have an idea that land in the colonies ought to be, or is, for sale at its original cost. At one time land was cheap, but we very much question whether the tiller of the soil in those early days made more out of it than he can to-day. Labour was scarcer and far dearer; the appliances for cultivation and harvesting were more imperfect; while produce was moved at a greater cost. Wheat was often left lying on the ground, because hands could not be found to tie and stook. A crop in this condition has been known to have been lifted by a sudden gale and blown in wild confusion to manure the neighbouring paddocks—a total loss to its helpless owner. People are fond of talking of the good old times; but would the rising generation, with its underground railways, its comfortable first-class carriages, and telegraphic facilities, like those days to be recalled? Probably not.

There are two courses open to a man intending to buy a farm: the first, to purchase what is known as an unimproved farm; the second, to invest in one which has been more or less cultivated, and with fences, gates, stabling, a homestead, and other conveniences, already placed upon it. Of late both could be bought at about the same price per acre; and for the reason that those who have capital, when compared with those who wish to farm without too much spare cash at their bankers, are as the few to the many. To the latter the unimproved land will, for reasons presently to be explained, offer the greatest inducement, and will consequently be in greater demand. The unimproved farm will consist either of land still in the native tussuck, or be in English grass, from which probably a crop of wheat has already been taken. Owing to the extensive "breaking up" which is everywhere being carried on, the native tussuck is

rapidly disappearing. The system generally adopted by the purchaser of an unimproved farm is as follows: during early summer the land will receive its first ploughing; this consists of a furrow made as shallow as possible with due regard to the inequality of the ground, of the width of at least twelve inches, and turned over completely on its face. The land in this state is left to itself till the following April (the month corresponding to the English October), when it is cross-ploughed to the depth of about five or six inches, according to the nature of the soil, and in that month or the following is sown with wheat. Perhaps a second wheat crop follows. Then oats, seeded down with a bushel of rye grass, and five pounds of clover. The land is then left to itself for some years, in order to subdue the sorrel and other weeds which two or three white crops have probably developed in somewhat alarming quantities. Those who have some concern for the future of their land omit the second wheat crop, except under extraordinary circumstances. Perhaps, had proper care been exercised in the eradication of weeds the present system would not have been too exhaustive for a virgin soil; but the stubbles are left untouched until ploughed down for the next crop; land has been plentiful and easily to be obtained; and probably the mischief was often done before its extent was fully realized. Necessity is now producing a better system, which, long in vogue nearer Christchurch, is gradually extending to the south. Very few of the improved farms have been bought for cash. They were mostly bought on the principle of deferred payments, a principle which from its apparent advantages often caused the purchaser to give a higher price for the land than its value at the time warranted, or than he would have done had the terms been less liberal. Auctioneers when

advertising properties for sale, were accustomed to wind up their notices with some such expression as "Terms most liberal." This in reality meant that the chances of a man being able ultimately to secure the freehold of his land had been calculated to a nicety. Should unfavourable seasons intervene, the probability was greatly against his doing so. Perhaps a man may be considered safe when he has paid fifty per cent. of the purchase-money, but a few moments' reflection will enable the reader to see that, when the first two corn crops have been harvested, a large amount of capital is necessary to make the land fairly profitable in the immediate future. At first a ring fence only had to be erected, and a shanty in which to live. The land once laid down in grass, divisional fences must be put up and stock purchased, while a large portion of the profits accruing from the grain crops have been expended in paying instalments, already amounting to perhaps thirty-five per cent. of the purchase-money, interest being payable upon the balance at the rate of six or seven per cent. per annum. We are only supposing a case, although it is one which has frequently arisen. Many an example might be found to prove our calculation to be erroneous, but buying land on deferred payment is very often a critical transaction. It entails much risk, and is not a method to be advocated: some who have bought under it have been successful, but for one who is, three or four come to grief. The large land companies, aware of this, have at last made their conditions somewhat easier. They have introduced during the past two years a system which enables the farmer to rent land for a term of years with the power of purchase at the end of a stated period. This allows him to utilize on his farm for the first few years of his occupation, any capital which he may possess, and so to make the most

of it. If at the end, say of five or six years, the occupier is not in a position to purchase at the price which has been fixed upon, the land might very probably pass from him to some new comer, but any improvements which had been effected would be taken over at a valuation.

The best method to adopt when about to buy an unimproved farm, is personally to select one or more blocks of land, and buy them out right from the company or private individual to whom they belong. If the buyer's capital be not sufficient to pay the whole of the purchase-money and at the same time work the farm, a mortgage can readily be arranged, with a safe margin, which will place the investor for the first few years of his occupancy in the same position as a tenant farmer at home; but with this difference, that so long as he can pay interest on the mortgage, all improvements will be his own, and he has an excellent chance of ultimately obtaining a clear freehold. Under any circumstances the one great consideration when buying tussuck, and either outright or under the deferred payment system, is to recollect that the farm, whatever its extent, is not already made, and that to make it fairly remunerative it will be necessary, sooner or later, to expend about 5*l.* an acre in various improvements; that all the money rolling in from the first grain crops is not income, but will be wanted to procure stock, erect fences, purchase grass seeds, and provide the numerous conveniences necessary to make a comfortable home from a raw soil.

When buying an improved farm, the value of the improvements will often have to be weighed against the time and money which must be expended before such a farm can yield a good return. This is especially the case in more recently settled districts, where necessarily

the previous occupier has had all that he could do to pay his way. Except under peculiar conditions, such as death, the natural inference is, that before selling, the late owner had got as much out of the land as could be got, at all events with the capital which he had at command. If an improved farm can be picked up in a situation where the soil is naturally good, it is probably better for an intending purchaser to invest in it instead of trying to make a farm out of original tussuck. Expenses for improvements mount up with extraordinary celerity. If the land is sound, and the improvements considerable, it is only necessary to exercise a little patience, and set to work to improve the paddocks one by one. Few if any farms are really worked out in New Zealand; they are often only dirty. Improved farms are generally not to be bought under the deferred payment system, but a man with his title-deeds in the bank holds a position which is not permitted to the deferred property owner.

In any case, whether the settler take virgin or improved land, he must expect to find it raw. After the original vegetable fibre, generally limited to the depth of four inches, has been extracted by one or two crops, it will, to use an American expression, want its "wildness" taken out of it. Most of the remarks made above must be understood to refer to South Canterbury, or to those portions of the Southern Island, equally far removed from the older cultivated lands. In the latter districts, farms rule at such a price as to be beyond the reach of the ordinary immigrant; but for those who possess the means it would be almost better to purchase a farm, or more properly an estate, nearer to the towns. Dear as these may seem at present, no doubt they will rise in value; if not in proportion to the land that has just

been described, yet to a considerable extent. To those who come to New Zealand in order to enjoy life, with a minimum of care and a maximum of pleasure, really good land in a central situation will even yet prove the best investment. Except that it is wrong to covet a neighbour's goods, it is hard to imagine a more fortunate lot than that of the farmer possessing 2000 acres of unencumbered land, of the value of from 20*l.* to 25*l.* per acre, and who, having gradually worked up to his present position, lives in a bright sunny clime, and surrounded by all that makes life enjoyable.

Farming in New Zealand is in a state of transition. When land was first broken up the return was so prolific that people became careless. The general cry was, "It does not pay to do too much to the soil; climate is our farmer here." Stories were rife as to how one man got a splendid crop of potatoes by planting them at the bottom of the furrow as he ploughed, and leaving the rest to nature. Or again, of how one merely skimmed the land, strewed turnip seed broadcast after the plough, and finished by one stroke of the harrows. By this method he sometimes secured a magnificent crop, whilst his neighbour, who had bestowed more trouble on the cultivation of the land, did not obtain half a crop. These and many other such instances of good fortune have no doubt occurred, and will, doubtless, occur again. We remember one year a sluggard in the home counties secured a fine crop of oats by sowing long after the season when the land could on an average be brought to sufficient tilth for the crop, and on that occasion beating those who had sown at the time which experience had proved to be best suited for the seeding. So, too, in New Zealand one hears of wonderful yields obtained under exceptional circumstances.

This may have been so, but it would be dangerous to try the system in nine cases out of ten. Perhaps the crop which it is sought to emulate may have been grown on rich swamp; a totally different result might follow on the downs. Perhaps a certain seeding may have been given on the downs—tried on the swamp, it proves a failure. A young and hard-working New Zealand farmer once jokingly said to the writer, "Well, I can't grow potatoes. Last year was wet, and I planted them in the swamp and got no crop. This year was dry and I planted them on the shingle, and again got no crop." "Well, next year," we said, "plant some on swamp and some on downs, and then you are sure to be right." To show the happy-go-lucky system which many have pursued, it was once quite common to hear such a conversation as the following during a Saturday jaunt to some market-town: "What are you going to do with that forty-acre paddock of yours?" "Well, I don't know; perhaps I'll chuck in some oats, or maybe a bit of spring wheat." This sort of things reminds us of the story of an old West of England farmer, who, passing along the road, heard one of his neighbours exclaim, apostrophizing a rough bit of plough, just as he was about to sow it with barley: "Well, I don't know whether you are fit for it or not; but here goes for a thumping big crop." But times in the colony are changing. People begin to say, "Any fool can grow wheat on tussuck land, but it requires a good farmer to grow it afterwards." That people are beginning to realize this shows us that many failures have taken place under the old system, and that a new era is about to commence, and indeed has already begun—begun, too, long ago on some of the older farms. The stranger may, in some places, see cultivation which would do no discredit to an

English country side. Hedges well trimmed, paddocks well ploughed, and the whole giving evidence of a well founded prosperity. Everywhere, to a greater or less extent, scarifiers and grubbers are being inquired for, even if not yet extensively employed, and the signs of the times point to a very decided and near progress being made in the development of husbandry.

Perhaps, in a work of this description, it might be expected that a calculation would be given as to the probable profit to be made by farming in New Zealand. To do so would be to solve an often disputed point, whether in New Zealand or elsewhere. It is perfectly easy to make farming pay on paper: figures can be twisted according to the ability and desire of the writer. The object which we have in view is to show generally the conditions under which a man must expect to live, and to leave him to fill up the blanks for himself. It would not be reasonable to expect the barrister already arrived at the top of his profession, to tell a briefless brother fresh from the schools, what income he would be likely to make during the next ten years. The income would depend both upon capacity and opportunities—the latter either lost by some slight negligence, or utilized by a systematic attendance in the courts. So it is with the farmer. Brains cannot be equalized, land cannot be uniform, nor will seasons and opportunities be similar. One man will lose when another will be found to come out on the right side. All that can be said is, here the starting-point, there the goal; the start being fair, the latter must be reached as best it can.

But one practical piece of advice may safely be given: do not buy too hurriedly. Settle, upon broad principles, in which part of the colony it is desirable to make an

investment, and, having done so, act with caution. Having arrived at a conclusion, by careful observation, it is advisable to act upon the personal judgment which may have been formed. A year's preliminary intercourse with future neighbours will give frequent opportunities for ascertaining where the best land is situated, and the districts which have produced the most well-to-do farmers. Having mastered these and other necessary particulars, the chances are in favour of a good purchase being made. For the unmarried man thus to look round for twelve months, will be easy, and his expenses light. To the married man with a family, such a delay may seem to entail an unnecessary expense, but this may not prove to be the case. Life in a lodging-house, although not the most agreeable of lives, is not expensive; while a step taken in the dark may prove the forerunner of a far larger expenditure.

The size of a farm capable of supporting a family must greatly depend upon the method of living, and the constitution of its members. From the farm of ten acres, any-sized property can be bought, until we come to that of the large proprietor who has paid 40,000*l.* for a freehold of 5000 acres. There is everywhere diversity enough to suit all tastes, and, more important still, all pockets. For a medium-sized farm of 500 acres, probably a working capital of 5*l.* an acre would be required. Were the emigrant to ask old colonists, they might consider this to be an extreme estimate; they might forget that the first freshness had been taken out of the land, and that much remains to be done. In a new country many improvements will be found necessary, especially if it be the desire of the investor to farm well and with due regard to safety. A capital of even 5*l.* an acre will in many instances require good and careful management.

In the old days it was thought that the best farmer was the man who knew nothing of agriculture until he came to the colony. Whatever may have been the case formerly it is not so now, and many instances exist to the contrary. Indeed it is not reasonable to suppose that people can be right when they assert that knowledge gained from a previous training at home goes for nothing. Such an assertion is not only not true, but it *cannot* be true, for "knowledge is power." It may be that experience will have to be adapted to circumstances, to an altered climate, and to a different kind of soil; but experience still remains. It may take an English farmer two or three seasons to master a totally different method and learn the capabilities of the soil; but being a farmer, he is more likely to do so than if he were an artisan. Whatever those who are not farmers may find to prove their mettle, the farmer has only one thing to learn—the potentialities of altered conditions.

Apropos of labour, it may be supposed that the results of a sovereign are more productive here than at home. The ploughman may be paid 20*s*., beyond his keep, and a head man, if a good workman, even at the rate of 22*s*. 6*d*. to 25*s*. per week; but then he works three horses and a double-furrow plough. Horses are far cheaper and equally good, while provender is certainly no more, and on the average less. One man is supposed to plough from two and a half to three acres per diem, an amount often accomplished for days together, but he can hardly do this if really good ploughing is required. Yet even so, two good acres of honest work can be got through. The quantity of land which can be turned over in the day results from two or three causes; these are, the rareness of the atmosphere, which enables horses to work with little fatigue; the workable character

of the soil; and the excellence of the ploughs in use. For all other operations labour-saving machinery is extensively and almost universally used. Very little crop is now cut save by the reaper and binder; grass seed is harvested with a stripper; grain is sown very generally by the drill, and if not, almost entirely by broadcast machines. Turnips and grass are always sown by machinery; and for these crops, and especially for the latter, a Cambridge roller is a necessity upon all farms.

To fill these pages with an account of the how and the when these and other machines are to be used, would be to write a treatise on practical agriculture. Enough if it be understood that everything above mentioned is necessary to successful farming in the colony. The man who knows how to work these implements at home will have a very good idea of how they are managed in New Zealand. If he understands what is meant by good ploughing at home, he will know, when he sees ploughing at the Antipodes, whether it be good or bad. Taking the cost of land to be 9*l.* an acre, it may be asked what return can be expected from land at that price? On such land forty bushels of wheat would be considered a good crop in the most favourable season (forty-five and fifty have been grown during the last three years); a poor one would be twenty bushels; the mean would be thirty bushels. A good crop of oats would be fifty bushels; a poor one, thirty bushels. We read sometimes that enormous crops have been grown; eighty bushels of wheat, eighty or ninety bushels of barley, and 120 bushels of oats. Such yields have never been produced on land of the present value of 9*l.* an acre. Many of them exist only in the brain of ignorant outsiders. A publican takes a farm, knowing no

more about his new profession than he knows about hunting. He puts in a crop of wheat by contract. When it is maturing he pays it a visit, and selecting some of the largest heads, makes a small sheaf with which to decorate his bar. Authorities come in for a glass now and then; the sheaf is produced, and the crop is put down at seventy or eighty bushels. The result given by the threshing-machine is probably thirty-five, but in the meantime the report is circulated in the papers that Mr. So-and-so expects a fine crop of eighty bushels of wheat from his farm near the Such-and-such railway station. The above is a fact, but the practical settler must not be buoyed up with the idea of marketing crops of anything like such an over-estimated value.

As far as possible it is better to steer clear of figures; but it may be interesting to some readers to have a rough idea of the cost of converting native tussuck into a paddock of waving wheat. It would be somewhat as follows:—

Breaking up, 8*s.* to 12*s.* per acre.
Cross-ploughing, 6*s.* to 8*s.* per acre.
Harrowing, three strokes, 2*s.* to 3*s.* per acre.
Sowing, 1*s.* per acre.
Seed, 1½ bushel at 5*s.*, 7*s.* 6*d.* per acre.
Rolling, 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6d.
Cutting, stooking, and stacking, 16*s.* to 20*s.* per acre.
Threshing, 3½*d.* to 4*d.* per bushel.
Carting to station, 1½*d.* to 2½*d.* per bushel.
Railway freight, 1½*d.* to ? per bushel.

The first figures represent prices ruling at a depressed time; the second, prices which would have to be paid when labour is in greater demand. Carting to the station and railway freight depend entirely on distance. The cartage given above would cover from three to five

miles; the railway freight, about fourteen miles. If a farmer wishes to send wheat home, the extra expenses to cover freight, with all risks and charges until sold in London, would amount to from 1*s.* 10*d.* to 2*s.* 2*d.* per bushel. From the above data readers must form their own conclusions.

CHAPTER VII.

STOCK AND ITS MANAGEMENT.

When the new arrival has had an opportunity of extending his excursions, either by rail or road, one of the first things which must strike him will be the excellence of the stock. Shortly after landing, a friend introduced us to an old settler—to one, in fact, who had dragged, by weary steps and great toil perhaps the first plough which ever crossed the Port Hills, to his rough cabin on the Canterbury Plains—a cabin erected by himself at a spot beyond what is now Christchurch. He kindly invited us to visit his place. The introduction was made so unostentatiously—the invitation given so much after the manner of "just step in and see us as you pass," that we imagined ourselves about to visit the home of some ordinary "cockatoo." On the first fine day we trudged along the Feudaltown road to visit our friend, and learn what could be learned. We found a comfortable house, solidly built, and presenting all the appearance of a well-to-do farmer's residence in an English county. After a hearty welcome and refreshing glass of beer, it was proposed that we should take a walk around the home farm. We gladly consented, and issuing forth, chatted freely by the way. The house was surrounded by comparatively small paddocks, in each of which two or three horses were grazing. They were looked at and admired,

the thought meantime arising, can these be the horses usually employed upon New Zealand farms? At last we came to a paddock where a young mare was feeding, a creature perfect almost beyond measure. "What do you think of her?" said our host. "Well," we replied, "she is, as far as we can see, perfect." "Yes," responded he quietly, "I think she is one of the best Clydesdale two-year-olds I have ever seen. I imported her from Australia, where she cost me three hundred guineas." We can see you now, Flora Macdonald, even at this distance of time—so great the difference between a pure bred and a mongrel. In the former case the symmetry is perfect, remaining impressed upon the memory; in the latter, the picture is evanescent, owing to the many corresponding types everywhere to be met with. The perfect form of the thoroughbred is retained, because each crossbred which afterwards may be seen, acts only as a foil, to bring out its salient beauties with greater vigour; the mongrel under similar circumstances eludes the memory, lost among the crowd of an omnipresent brotherhood. We do not pretend to be a judge of horseflesh, beyond a certain point—beyond the point, that is, which the farmer attains as much from necessity as from choice. But we pretend to have some taste for art and what is known as "the line of beauty." Hence it is that beauty of form remains impressed on our retina, and that Flora Macdonald stands in almost as clear perspective as the day on which we paid our visit.

We came, next, to the young stock, for the most part yearling bulls, pure representatives of the shorthorn breed. In the sties we found pigs possessing all the characteristics of the pure Berkshire. We began to think that, instead of being on an ordinary farm, we had met with the homestead of a veteran breeder and frequent

prize-taker—of one who possessed his acres, and many of them, who had spent thousands upon his enterprise, and done what he could to give to New Zealand cattle of the right sort. We had travelled more than our host, and had greater opportunities, but not so utilized; we could not fail to pay a mental tribute to the man who with his own hands had built at first a rough settler's shanty, who had converted seas of tussuck into well-cultivated farms, and by care and thrift had become the owner of many hundreds of productive acres. We could not but remember that, instead of investing savings in securities returning a large and certain interest, we were in the home of one who had devoted his money to the purchase of animals of the type which we have endeavoured to describe, and if for his own, yet also for his country's good, had done so at a great risk.

But such a farm is only one of the many sources through which animals of the most valued pedigree have been introduced into the colony. The New Zealand and Australian Land Company, the Christchurch Stud Company, and many private persons, have, by introducing good blood of all descriptions, assisted to raise the position of stock to the point which it has already attained. One of the principal causes which has conduced to the presence of so much good blood lies in the fact, that if an animal has to be imported across the seas, it can only pay to import the best of its kind. The result is, that good blood everywhere abounds. There are few, if any, country districts at home where such good stock can be seen within a given radius as in New Zealand. We do not for one moment assert that "scrubbers" are not to be found, often in too great proportion; but their existence must be attributed more to the neglect and parsimony of the breeder than to the stock from which they

are descended. It is of no avail for a man to possess good blood if he does not intend to feed it well. It is of no use for a farmer to think that any worn-out animal is good enough for stud purposes if the price be but low. A persistent system of careless breeding has existed too long—of crossing and re-crossing various breeds, until all traces of the original type have been lost beyond recall. When flocks or herds have got into this condition, the only safe plan is to commence *de novo*.

Once, when attending the weekly sales at the Addington yards, near Christchurch, we asked an auctioneer what sort of sheep such and such pens contained. "Oh, cross-breds," said he. They were indeed cross-breds—Merino, Leicester, Border Leicester, Lincoln, and Cotswold, with a touch here and there of the Down, blended in a proportion which would utterly defy a solution of the entanglement. The same has been the case with horses, beasts, pigs, and all other farm stock. Now-a-days the numerous agricultural shows, past experience, and the necessity, through competition, of producing a better animal, tend towards a general improvement in the pureness of blood. And it must ever remain a subject for congratulation that the imported stock and its progeny still exist in their original purity, and that it is within the power of those who wish to do so, to produce and perpetuate a pure breed of that class of stock to which they may turn their attention.

Sheep being by far the most important stock grown in this country, ought to be first considered. We feel sure that many of our best flocks, especially cross-breds, and the pure long-woolled varieties, will bear comparison with anything that can be seen at home. The climate of New Zealand, and the character of its soil, are, when united, all that can be desired for promoting health and

growth in sheep, combined with a useful and strong class of wool. We are speaking now more particularly of the agricultural land. The Merino grazes upon the hill, and in a country which would, for the most part, be useless either for a long-woolled sheep, or for agricultural purposes. It is only on the lower slopes of the ranges that English grass can be cultivated with any prospect of success. Upon the hills native herbage is the most nutritious, and this is suited only for Merinos. These it keeps in far better condition than could be expected, although the stock raised upon it can never vie with the matchless flocks of Spain and Saxony, or compare with the finer wools of Australia. The finest class of merino wool can no doubt be produced in New Zealand, but it would be upon more valuable lands, which can be better utilized by growing a more marketable breed of sheep. The runs proper can, with care and good management, yield a good return of sound-stapled merino wool, of medium to good quality; but that is all. They never can attain to such a pitch of excellence as to cause their wool to rank in the home-market with the best merino from more favoured climates. Our sheep-walks are situate at more or less high altitudes, and in consequence have a tendency to pauperize both the growth of carcase and quality of wool. To produce a Merino in full excellence, it is not only necessary that the herbage should be suitable, but that the climate should be such as to develope the grease and bring the wool to a full maturity. This capability the runs in New Zealand do not, and, we think, never will possess.

New Zealand runholders endeavour to improve their flocks in the most praiseworthy manner. To accomplish their object they spare no expense. Costly rams are every year imported from either Tasmania or Australia.

A flock of even the Vermont (American) Merino is to be found. These sheep are both coarse-woolled and gross-bodied, and, in our opinion, as little suited to be crossed with the mountain flocks of the colony as is the cart-horse with the thoroughbred. We believe that if instead of importing fine-woolled rams from abroad, our flock-masters were to select those of their ewes which gave the heaviest clip and showed a maximum density of wool, and to these put such of their rams as embodied the finest points and beauty of form, they would do more to secure a satisfactory result than by importing fresh blood at great cost. Were they to do so, they would have one great advantage, namely, that the stock upon which they relied would be already acclimatized. Any infiltration of new blood into a flock is a serious matter. Given good stock and style upon which to commence operations, selection must be the safest and surest plan. When Mr. Ellman began to improve—may we not say establish?—the Southdown breed, what was his mode of operation? A cross with the Leicester had been tried, and was a failure. The promised advantages to be derived from the Merinos were delusive. After these and other failures he understood, and was careful to practise, the true principle of breeding—selection. Again, how did Mr. Bakewell, of Dishley, apply himself to reform the breed of sheep as then existing in his county? "The sort of sheep," says Youatt, "which Mr. Bakewell selected, were those possessed of the most perfect symmetry with the greatest aptitude to fatten, and rather smaller in size than the sheep then generally bred. Having formed his stock from sheep so selected, he carefully attended to the peculiarities of the individuals from which he bred, and it appears did not object to breeding from near relations, when by so doing he could put

together animals likely to produce a progeny possessing the characteristics which he wished to obtain."

We cite these instances of the process of evolution developed in the well-known cases of the Southdown and Leicester, each excellent of its class, for the purpose of proving that the men who perfected these breeds worked upon true principles. They worked up, not down. They worked from the best that their flocks contained. They worked from the thickest-woolled, squarest-shape ewe that could be found, and mated her with the ram which possessed the finest points and most graceful carriage. Such should be the practice in New Zealand, because therein consists the true principle of attaining perfection.

How often in our show-yards do we see rams take a first prize, or high honours, which have not been bred in this country, but in some other colony. What a grand thing to be able to say, "I took the first prize with a sheep for which I gave so many pounds!" Sometimes such sheep are exhibited as an advertisement to help the sale of ordinary stock. But prize sheep do not necessarily make a flock, and even the few home-bred pampered sheep which take prizes, seldom fairly represent the flocks of their owner. We assert that in many cases they do not represent them at all. Many such instances will occur to the minds of those who, practised judges of sheep, examine *seriatim* the pens in any of our show-yards. It is one of the worst features of the show system, that an animal which may with great propriety be called a phenomenon, takes the first prize wherever he may be exhibited; his usefulness as regards the improvement of stock in the country may be "nil." The process of getting up stock for show is so well understood, that various means have been suggested to mitigate the evil.

It has been urged that no clothing in winter should be allowed, and that exhibits should be taken direct from the run to the show-yard. Many honest men have pursued the latter course—with what result may readily be anticipated. If the best animal in a show is to take the prize, the judges are bound to give their award on the merits of the animal as it stands in the show-ground. At the same time they may feel that by giving the first prize to a pen of whose antecedents they are often perfectly cognizant, they are not promoting the real object of the association, or benefiting the country at large. In England we found that, unless great care was taken, the object of our local shows might easily be negatived. A prize was given, say, for roots. A man would select a few of the largest roots grown in his field; he might even condescend to cultivate a few in his garden for the special purpose of obtaining a prize; or make an exchange with an accommodating neighbour. But this did not meet our views. The prize was awarded subject to a visiting committee returning it as their opinion that the roots shown were a fair sample of the farmer's crop. Just so when we come to consider the question of prize sheep. Take the exhibited pen for what it is worth; but before finally awarding the prize, let the judges ascertain that the pen really represents a fair type of what is produced for flock or stud purposes upon the farm or run. We feel sure that the introduction of such a system would give the greatest satisfaction, and be most conducive to a real improvement in stock. Agricultural shows are degenerating into a simple business, while the persons who subscribe to them are induced to do so under the impression that they are working for the general good of the farmer and runholder.

Merinos, as we have said, are for the most part con-

fined to the back country, but most of the runs possess thousands of acres of valuable freehold laid down to English grass or turnips. On these, half and three-quarter-bred sheep are raised, which have most valuable characteristics. The rams mostly used are of the Lincoln or Leicester breeds. The wool produced is of good quality, and generally commands a high price in the London market. The wethers are kept for wool-producing purposes until they become four or six-toothed; but this depends entirely upon the ideas and circumstances of the runholder. The four-tooth ewes are often sold to form the breeding-flocks of the farmer. When it can be avoided we do not think that a cross beyond half-bred, or at most three-quarter-bred, should be kept on the bulk of the freehold land which lies under the hills. The climate in such situations is generally too cold, and the grass too sour, to bring a further cross to full perfection. Nor does the extra weight of wool obtained under such conditions pay for diminution in its value, when compared with the price usually to be obtained for the half-bred fleece. Half-bred wool, like that grown in New Zealand, possesses a character which is rarely, if ever, to be found in any other country, and usually commands a ready sale. Some runholders, recognizing this, have begun to breed back to the Merino from three-quarter-bred ewes. Such a course is likely to prove a mistake, and a greater mixture of wools and more uneven character of sheep will be the inevitable result. A well established breed of half-breds, pure and reliable in its character, would be a great addition to the flocks of the colony; but such a breed has yet to be established, and to do this would probably be a work of time, and entail considerable judgment. We believe that a gentleman in the neighbourhood of Geraldine has undertaken

such an experiment, which it is to be hoped will prove successful. This half-bred mutton would rank as prime in the home markets.

The number of sheep kept on farms is each year rapidly increasing. We believe it is correct to state that already the produce of wool from farms is greater than that from the runs; at all events this is so in Canterbury. As cultivation improves, the proportionate production will be still greater; but the position which farmers already occupy with regard to the production of wool is sufficiently important. Two methods are open to them when desiring to establish or keep a flock of breeding ewes. The first, and perhaps the system usually adopted, is to buy Merino or cross-bred ewes from the runs as may be required. In that case the produce consists of half-bred or three-quarter-bred lambs. The second is to start with half-breds, and gradually to work up to the pure long-wools. The breeder who takes a pride in his flock beyond the immediate gain, will certainly adopt the latter course.

If his cultivation be good and his land in fair heart, it will also prove the more profitable system. His sheep, from their better and more even quality, will come to maturity earlier, and always obtain the best market price of the day; while his wool, from its greater regularity and known value, will give to himself and the buyer greater satisfaction. It is urged that the nearer we approach to the long-wool the less the value which we obtain per pound. But when the greater weight of the clip and earlier maturity of the sheep are taken into consideration, the profit will usually be found greater.

In this part of the country the Lincoln cross is the favourite, as it is not considered to run so much to seed as that with the Leicester. But our land possesses a

strong subsoil, a fact greatly in favour of the Lincoln. In many parts of the island, no doubt, the Leicester would prove the better cross. But whichever is employed, farmers at home must recollect, when calculating the result, that oil-cake is never used, and that, whether it be from a drier soil or a greater sunshine, long-woolled sheep do not acquire the same coarseness of flesh as they do in the old country. A sheep of this class killed when he is fourteen months old, and with proper feeding, makes most excellent mutton for marketable purposes. Take him at the age of from twelve to fifteen months, and he will suit both the farmer and the butcher. We are not speaking of that epicurean mutton, of which old squires like to boast that it has been pastured for four years in the home park, but of the commercial mutton out of which the producer can make the most coin with due regard to the palate of the consumer. The gentleman farmer takes a pride in his Southdown flock; the man whose business it is to produce mutton for the million, prefers something which will weigh a little heavier. In this our day of small profits and quick returns, money-grubbers must be content with something less than four-year-olds.

In passing from sheep we feel that we are leaving pleasant memories behind. What can be more delightful than to see a flock of ewes upstanding, square-framed, their individuality undistinguishable save by the shepherd? What sight more refreshing or typical of innocence than that of the lambs gambolling about the pastures? What more satisfactory than to harvest a paying crop of wool? Of what have poets oftener sung than of the ideal pastoral life, of Damon and Phyllis discoursing sweet love beneath the shady tree, their flocks meanwhile browsing the country round? And yet the imagination of the poet

may fall far short of the reality. His ideas of pastoral life may tend towards the sensual—the reality never. The bearing of a sheep as it lifts its gaze innocently and trustfully towards the shepherd was never so tenderly portrayed, or more faithfully recorded, than in those sweet and sacred words, "As a lamb was dumb before his shearers, so opened not He His mouth." To draw lessons from nature, to compare the type with the reality, this is one of the true pleasures of a country life. To be able to do so or not, is one of the best tests which a man can place before himself when considering whether a colonial and country life is suitable to his tastes, or the reverse.

Cattle at present occupy a secondary position in this country. The space which is suitable for their production is not large enough to support the vast herds of Texas or South America; nor is farming sufficiently developed, or their marketable value sufficiently certain, to warrant the ordinary farmer making their production a part of his business. Here and there, where men possess large estates, parts of which are not suitable for sheep, but only for grazing beasts, their cultivation no doubt pays. After four to five years' keep, the price realized for them when fat may amount to from 8*l.* to 14*l.* When we come to consider the number of sheep which can be kept upon an acre, the value of the wool, and the quicker return which they give, it must be apparent that sheep offer greater inducements than cattle to the small proprietor. In addition to this, they manure the land far more effectually than beasts can do. Bullock-raising is then at a discount at present, although very possibly we shall see a gradual improvement in value during the next few years. The low price of mutton prevents beef from proving more remunerative than it is. Once let a

sufficient outlet be found for fat sheep, either from an export trade, or the gradually increasing wants of our population, and beef will advance in proportion as mutton rises. With mutton costing the consumer from 2*d.* to 2½*d.*, beef cannot be very dear.

The foundation of our present breed of cattle consisted in importations from Australia. Many of these animals showed a coarse bone, and a tendency to develop beef in the lower rather than in the upper parts of the body. In later years valuable members of the shorthorn, Hereford, and Ayrshire families have been imported, with such good effect that the general appearance of the stock is very creditable, and the beef of excellent quality. Dairy farming is at present in its infancy, but already trial shipments of butter and cheese have been made to the old country. Refrigerating chambers in the ships trading to New Zealand ports will soon give a great impetus to this branch of agriculture. The New Zealand and Australian Land Company have started a dairy on a large scale upon their Edendale estate[1] in Otago, whilst in other localities, where the character of the land is suitable for the purpose, butter and cheese factories on the American principle are being erected or proposed. The butter of New Zealand, if properly manufactured, is second to none, and Akaroa cheese already possesses a colonial reputation. The parts of the Southern Island most likely to be devoted to the dairy interest will be Bank's Peninsula, the rich swamp lands running in many parts along the eastern coast, and some of the richer parts of Otago. The establishment of this new industry is likely to add considerably to the wealth and trade of the colony.

[1] Since the above was written, this estate has been sold.

The Clydesdale has formed a basis for the breed of draught horses, and as fine specimens of the class may be seen here as anywhere. It speaks well for the quality and numbers of our horses that it has been thought desirable to publish a New Zealand Stud Book, under the auspices of the Canterbury Pastoral and Agricultural Association—a body which takes the position of the Royal Agricultural Society at home. Almost every district has its horse parade in early spring, and of course there are numerous classes for the draught, the thoroughbred, the carriage-horse, hunter, and even the child's wee pony, at the annual agricultural shows. When present at some of these we have often wished that certain of our country friends at home could be there too, in order to appreciate what the energy of their brother farmers has effected in so short a time. If any weakness amongst our horses exists, it will be found in the classes for the carriage-horse and hunter. Owing to the importations for the most part having been confined to the heavy Clydesdale and thoroughbred racer, useful and compact carriage-horses, and hunters well up to weight, are in short supply. Time will no doubt improve this defect, and already strenuous exertions are being made to produce a better animal of these descriptions, for which there is an increased demand each year.

Prices of horses are such as to suit all requirements. The shearer's hack—usually a seedy-looking weed, of most suspicious appearance—can often be bought, saddle, bridle, and all, for from 3*l.* to 5*l.*, while a really good riding-horse will cost from between 20*l.* and 30*l.* Plough-horses are obtainable at all prices, their value having of late fluctuated very greatly. Three years ago 80*l.* was paid for a sound young horse of the right stamp, while to-day 40*l.* would represent the cost.

The cheapest team which has come under our notice is one picked up by a farmer next door to ourselves, who put three plough-horses together at a total cost of 18*l*. We have not critically examined them, but they look, and indeed must be worth the money, and as he is a canny Scot he will no doubt see his own again. On an average, good useful farm-horses may at present be picked up for about 30*l*. apiece.

Pigs in New Zealand are like that much-abused animal in other parts. Sometimes one can hardly give them away; at others they possess an exceptionally high value. Notwithstanding this, no homestead with any pretensions to the name should be without a few, to act as scavengers, and afford an ever-welcome supply of bacon, pork pies, brawn, and ham.

Poultry, ducks, geese, and the turkey everywhere abound, and are often sold at prices which make the town-folk consider them cheaper than butcher's meat. Canterbury is essentially a habitat of the turkey. The birds are turned out into some rough bit of land, and left to their own devices. When one is wanted, a pot at a promising-looking specimen will soon fill the larder.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE NEW ZEALAND ALPS.

THE one feature which lends perhaps its greatest beauty to the Southern Island is the range of mountains, covered with perpetual snow, that stretches from the Southern Lakes in Otago in one unbroken chain almost to the Otira Gorge. This pass is situated on the high road between Hokitika and Christchurch, and is the principal way used when crossing from the east to the west coast. The highest point of this range is Mount Cook, attaining a height, according to some, of 13,000 feet—according to others, of but 12,600 feet. However this may be, the comparatively slight elevation above the sea at which its actual base is situated, causes the mountain itself to assume a grandeur unknown to many snow-capped peaks of greater altitude. The New Zealand Alps, with their broken glaciers, rocky precipices, and virgin summits, present to the Alpine climber as tempting a field for the exercise of endurance and real "grit" as can be found in older haunts.

Between the higher and lower ranges two groups of lakes have been formed, the one in Otago, and the other in the so-called "Mackenzie country," a district which is part of the Province of Canterbury. The principal lakes in Otago are Lakes Wanaka and Hawea to the north, and Lake Wakatipu further south. On these

several towns are situated, while steamers already ply on Wakatipu. Taking these lakes as a basis for operations, several mountain peaks are within easy distance. We may mention those of Earnshaw, 9165 feet high; of Mount Aspiring, 9910 feet; of Castor and Pollux, 8633 feet; with many others of an almost equal altitude. Still further south are Lakes Te Anau and Makipori. Of them all Lake Wakatipu is the longest, covering in its sinuous course a length of more than forty-five statute miles. Te Anau presents a wider expanse, besides which its western shore is intersected by large arms running up between the mountains, after the manner of the fiords common to the coast of Norway. This group of lakes is approached from Dunedin by those who wish to commence their tour from the north, and from Invercargill by those to whom the southern route is more convenient.

The Canterbury lakes, consisting of Lakes Tekapo, Pukaki, and Ohou, lie more or less near to the base of Mount Cook, Mount Darwin, and other peaks around. Amidst these ranges are to be found the celebrated Tasman and Godley glaciers. We confess that our own days of Alpine climbing are long since past and gone; that at the best we never became much more than the summer tourist; that the "arête" of the Weiss-Thor was the most dangerous work which ever fell to our lot, whilst the Ober-Aar-Jock was the most uncomfortable, thanks to the Oberland guides, who insisted upon hauling our person over the rocks as if it had been a kitten at the end of a string. Yet only once to have gone down a "crevasse," not knowing where the fall might end, until, jerked up by trusty guides, one found oneself again in the light of day, gives more idea of the difficulties which beset the path of the mountaineer

than could be learned without that grim experiment. Although then our experience has been limited, we will undertake to say that in the Tasman and Godley glaciers, with their surrounding peaks, the mountaineer will have work cut out worthy of the first scaler of the Matterhorn.

Lake Tekapo is generally reached by the high road passing over Burke's Pass, which, running through Fairlie Creek, Albury, and Pleasant Point, takes its start from Timaru.

Many smaller lakes than those mentioned are scattered here and there over the country, but those mentioned are most noticed by tourists. From all we have heard, or gathered from photographs, the scenery about the Otira Gorge offers great attractions to travellers in the Southern Island. Not that its beauty is Alpine as the country already indicated; but it is described as possessing a character all its own, its native forests and tree ferns giving in summer almost the idea of sub-tropical vegetation. Whether such a description be right or wrong, "the gorge" is no doubt one of those things which the traveller ought to "do." While on the subject of scenery the hot lakes in the North Island must not be forgotten. They attract many visitors. It has recently been stated, on good authority, that as many as 800 people from Australia and America visited these springs last season, and that the numbers increase with each succeeding year. They are celebrated for their medicinal properties in cases of paralysis, rheumatism, nervous affections, and disorders of a similar nature.

Whether their waters be more efficacious than those to be found elsewhere, far be it from us to decide. People go and return in a better state of health; but to what extent this depends upon a change of life and diet, or

how far upon the waters alone, must be decided upon the same grounds by which the springs of Aix-la-Chapelle or Langen Schwalbach are judged at home. But "the tourist element," said a public man, as quoted by the *Timaru Herald*, "is going to be one of the chief factors in our prosperity." The *Herald* is inclined to think that the public man was not far wrong, and goes on to state that "This may at first sight be thought an insignificant source of wealth to a colony of the importance of New Zealand; but if it consists, as it undoubtedly does for all practical purposes, of an accession of several thousands of rich people, it manifestly signifies a great deal. In our opinion—and we are not altogether without data to go upon—it already produces an appreciable effect upon the revenue." Individually we have but little doubt that the exhilarating air, our beautiful scenery and bright climate, will offer, as time rolls on, sufficient attractions to the Australian to cause him to visit spots where he may secure a thorough change from the parching heats of his own home. New Zealand is distant from Australia but four days by steam, and the communication between the two countries presents each year greater facilities, combined with gradually extending mercantile relations. The American comes—it is difficult to say why or wherefore, except on the supposition that he comes to drink the waters. What induced the man who travelled from the States to far-off India with the sole purpose of seeing the well at Cawnpore, and having seen it to return directly home—nobody can tell. Maybe he was moved by some affecting story of the Mutiny, which had sunk deeply into his heart; maybe it was the result of some sudden impulse. But the fact remains—he did it. Many young Englishmen too are to be found travelling about the country for pleasure, and perhaps instruction.

A.D. 1882 must be looked upon as a red-letter year in the New Zealand calendar. Not only did a yacht reach its shores from home, but Mr. Green, a member of the Alpine Club, whose name has been a household word for the past two months, ascended to the top of the hitherto invincible Mount Cook. When we recall to mind what Switzerland was forty years ago, and compare her then condition with her present, we cannot fail to realize the large amount of riches that the habitual traveller can pour into a country which he has selected for an annual playground. It is probable that hotels for summer use will be built in beautiful localities, where at present only rock and tussuck can be seen. Perhaps in days to come the story of our camping out may possess no greater significance for the traveller than the already almost forgotten coaching reminiscences of our grandfathers and grandmothers.

When leaving home, a friend presented us with a large work, comprising, with its copious index, some 734 pages of well-written matter, including numerous woodcuts illustrative of the text. The title was, "Shifts and Expedients of Camp Life." The work no doubt displays an enormous amount of research, and presumably of real experience, but the effect upon an old traveller will possibly be somewhat similar to that caused by a perusal of Messrs. Silver and Co.'s list of "necessaries." We remember once hearing a young fellow in South America describe the fate of his swinging cot and portable washstand, the latter enclosed within its polished case. He had not arrived at his destination more than a fortnight, when the lot was gambled away at a race meeting, or lost over a game of euchre, we forget which. The fault may not have been so much his as a fond father would imagine. Once in camp, the necessaries of civilization

become valueless. It is far easier to do as others do—wash in the neighbouring creek, and sleep between two blankets, or wrapped in a warm opossum rug—than to be incommoded by washstand or cot. The mere possession of these at once creates a difference between yourself and your companions. In camp all should be on an equality. Instead then of starting from home encumbered with articles which the shopman assures you to be perfectly necessary, set out upon your travels with as few *impedimenta* as possible. There are few places, to which the traveller can go now-a-days, where some town does not afford an opportunity of buying articles in the country itself far more suitable for his purposes than those to be acquired in Bond Street or Cheapside.

In our case the camping out was to be of short duration, and the preliminary preparations occupied but little time. Our "buggies," a generic term in the colony for every description of vehicle on springs short of the "express" waggon, were carefully overhauled, all loose bolts screwed tight, and the wheels well oiled. Our horses' feet were seen to, and loading operations were commenced. The kit which it was thought necessary to take consisted of leather bags, containing a change of raiment, rolls of rugs and blankets in which to sleep, water-proof sheeting to prevent the damp from rising during the night, tents with their poles strapped to the sides of the buggies, tether ropes for the horses, with iron pins for securing those ropes at night. The above, and "billies" in which to cook and make the tea, a small hatchet, a screw wrench, a little oil, and some spare rope, comprised the gentlemen's part of the preparations. To the ladies fell the victualling department, and this, it is almost needless to say, was well

attended to. Tinned salmon, bloater paste, cakes, bread, jam, butter, and a round of cold corned beef as a *pièce de résistance*, provided ample security against starvation. Plates, spoons, knives and forks, and other necessary implements, were not forgotten; nor, wonderful to say, were pepper, salt, and mustard. Added to these an allowance of flour and baking-powder with which to make scones in case the bread fell short, and our victualling department was a miracle of forethought, well worthy the attention of an army commissariat staff. Hidden away in one of the traps was a bottle of Hollands for the parting cup at night. Before setting out on our homeward route we sincerely wished that the bottle had been two.

The party consisted of four ladies and three gentlemen, one of the latter a boy from school, whose duty it was to make himself generally useful. A cheerful young fellow, best known by the pseudonym of "Bruny," joined us *en route*, and acted as out-rider and *chef-de-cuisine*. To make such an expedition as ours successful, it is very desirable for its component members to be fairly intimate, and of a cheerful disposition. This was certainly the case in the present instance; and we all look back on our "camping out," as one of many pleasant episodes.

The first day's journey was forty-eight miles from point to point, and terminated at the pretty station-house of Ashwick. Leaving Timaru, and skirting the New Zealand and Australian Land Company's Station of the Levets—a large estate comprising about 80,000 acres—the first village reached was Pleasant Point, a place of some importance, and including among its buildings two hotels, a railway station, both a Scotch and English church, a public cemetery, and public park. The

latter at present is in the condition of some American cities, very imposing on paper, but as a matter of fact existing in little more than name. In the locality are many good residences, with farms attached. Passing on we camped for the mid-day halt a mile or two beyond the "Cave"—a solitary hotel and railway station, looking dreary and uninviting in its lonely desolation. We had taken the precaution to borrow a feed of oats from a friend's stable by the way, and whilst we attended to the horses, the ladies boiled the "billy." On this occasion, but on this occasion only, we enjoyed the luxury of a table-cloth—for table-cloths being considered unnecessary to camp life, the destiny of the present one was to be relegated almost immediately to the service of the washing-up department. The ladies were but "letting us down gently," as an artist of our acquaintance used to say when caught with an early B. and S., from the refinements of civilization to the rougher experiences of the camp. Before we broke up the final camp at the Pukaki, we began to think that if we were ever again to become respectable members of a refined society it was time to make a start homewards. As day succeeded day, and meal followed meal, our "table" was spread with more regard for the useful, and less for the æsthetic. Each began to look after his or her individual necessities more than after general effect. Camping out is very pleasant, but also demoralizing. After a pleasant halt, our General —who by the way was a retired officer of the Royal Navy, and quite at sea when commanding field forces of mixed sexes—gave the order to proceed. But the young lady portion of the brigade required two or three separate and distinct commands before resuming their allotted seats. At last we were away, and rolling along in quiet vetturino fashion towards Albury, a small settlement, and the pre-

sent terminus of the Timaru and Albury branch line. It consists of a storè, a blacksmith's shop, two or three houses, and two somewhat pretentious hotels. To the ordinary mind, one hotel would have been thought sufficient under the surrounding circumstances. Here a halt was made, during which the ladies filled their pockets with "collies," and the gentlemen made an opportunity for a quiet "nip."

Leaving Albury, the road followed the course of the new railway works, which, when completed, will carry the line about fourteen miles further, to a new terminus at the village of Fairlie Creek. Shortly, the hills between which we had been travelling began to recede, leaving a pleasant and fertile valley, dotted with numerous well-to-do-looking homesteads. These followed us until the valley once more contracted, at a point where the road commenced slowly to ascend towards Burke's Pass. At Fairlie Creek another short halt was ordered by the commander-in-chief, for the avowed purpose of buying some twine wherewith the better to secure his hat. But this done, a quiet beckon with the fore-finger brings us once more face to face with the question, "Well, what will you take?" "I can't think," said one of the young ladies, "what business father can have at all these places." Possibly not, but the business, whatever it was, was not of that intoxicating character which the uninitiated reader might be led to expect. The glasses were very small, the liquor much diluted, and the price of sixpence a glass unproportionally exorbitant, when viewed with regard to the actual alcohol. It must be remembered too, that coffee and milk had formed the mid-day beverage, instead of the "Sherry, sir?" of the modern luncheon table. Just as daylight began to fail, we arrived at our destination for the night—Ashwick.

Situated at the foot of a rather steep hill, embowered among luxuriantly growing conifers and deciduous trees, Ashwick presents a good type of the run-holder's home in New Zealand. Before the hall door a well-grassed lawn slopes towards a pleasant stream, while a verandah, adorned with the spoils and implements of the chase, running the length of the entire front, gives an idea of comfort agreeable to the senses. Needless to say, we were received with the proverbial hospitality. Ashwick presents to those fortunate enough to have been sheltered beneath its roof, a homelike welcome quite its own. At many stations we meet with well-furnished rooms, good libraries, and the ordinary accompaniments of a refined life. Here something more is to be found. It is not that money has been expended in lavish profusion; perhaps had such been the case the charm would have been broken; but we find what money cannot buy, and seem under the subtle influence of artistic genius. We are recalled once more to scenes familiar in far distant lands, whether it be by the photograph of our old school-chapel, or by the familiar faces to be met with in the drawing-room album: by the pictures hanging upon the walls, copies and mementos of our academies; or may be by those little nothings which, collected during a long course of travel, and comparatively valueless in themselves, possess from old associations a special value to their owner. All these and suchlike things recall scenes far different from the present, and remind us of a culture which can be met with only at the centre of the Old World. Let art, we thought, pursue her way amid difficulties and inevitable discouragements, rejoicing in the thought that after all her influence may be world wide, and give to people unknown a better idea of the ethereal and sublime. Frequently has a sneer been

directed by those who have seen the Laocoon and the Apollo Belvidere, the Venus de Medici and the Venus of the Capitol, in their original glory, upon the casts which have been placed in the Crystal Palace at Sydenham. But has it ever occurred to critics such as these that art even at secondhand is still art; that perfect lines and symmetry of form even in the plaster tend to develop a taste for the beautiful amongst the million, which, from their inaccessibility, the very originals must fail to do? Yet it is true. If we cannot always see "The Huguenot," in the full harmony of its colouring, and fresh from the master's hand, is it not a pleasure to refresh the memory in the photograph. If people in a distant colony have not seen the work, is it not better to trace the fair contour of the figures, the tender pathos of the situation, in the photograph, than not to possess any idea at all of the artistic conception? However science may, in certain cases, have assisted to debase and vulgarize the mediocre, she has given to true art an extended sphere for good.

The next morning opened with a relentless drizzle, precluding all idea of departure. It looked as if we were in for a three days' south-wester. Ourselves, a party of seven, with two other casuals in the house, we were sponging upon our host's kindness. But we were in for it, and had to manage as best we could. Being self-invited we were hardly in the position of invited guests. The morning we wiled away by smoking, and eating figs plucked from the verandah trellis. Most of the afternoon was spent in the display of some rather extraordinary acrobatic feats upon the ropes of the woodshed hoist. The evening was devoted to dancing. Nothing would content our host, who is himself a perfect performer, but that the carpet should be taken up in the

drawing-room. We are sorry to say that the talents of the male sex were hardly up to the requirements of the occasion. But there was one dear old fellow, very amiable, but very large, who performed most successfully; and it was interesting to watch how light his step, when compared to his specific gravity. His movements almost bordered on the graceful, and would have put to shame many a man of lighter build. After the ladies had retired, a few songs, a couple of speeches, and "Auld Lang Syne," with hands united, sung in honour of one of the number who was about to pay a visit to the old home, concluded what was, in spite of the weather, a most enjoyable day. Could we but repeat the little jokes which were played, or the intermittent chaff which was thrown about, we should give a much better idea than we have done of station life under difficulties, and of the harmless fun, which is one of the characteristics of the colony. But better as it is. The fun, good in itself, would hardly bear repeating, when removed from its surroundings.

Next morning gave promise of better weather, and we started after breakfast, if not overwhelmed by showers of rice and satin slippers, yet still accompanied by the good wishes of those we left behind. After a pretty drive of eight miles we arrived at Burke's Pass, where we were most hospitably entertained by the engineer of the Mount Cook Road Board, who resides there in a most comfortable house, with his wife and family.

Burke's Pass is a pleasant little place, with its houses situated on either side of what we can compare to nothing better than an English country green. It is situated some 500 feet below the top of the Pass, and contains a church, schools, the inevitable hotel, and several other buildings. The *tout-ensemble* gives more idea of home

and the old country than many a more extensive and important place. Being on the high road to the Mackenzie country, and a necessary halting-place for travellers, a considerable traffic passes through at certain seasons of the year.

Soon we top the Pass, and are looking down upon the Mackenzie Plain. The day is lovely, the sky a pure blue, but a spur of the mountains to the right shuts out from view Mount Cook and the snow-capped ranges. After a drive of some twelve miles, we breast the ridge and immediately Lake Tekapo, with Mount Cook in the distance, opens to the view. The lake lies at our feet. On our right, a station house, surrounded by trees and built upon a small peninsula, presenting from its narrow neck almost the appearance of an island, forms a fore-ground. On our left, the new bridge which spans the outlet of the lake, and the hotel, with its gardens, stabling, and surroundings, perform the same office. The setting sun has just begun to bathe the hills with a flooded light, the atmosphere is perfectly clear, with the exception of one solitary dense white cloud, which nestling in a mountain valley appeared held down by an almost supernatural power—so clear were the peaks above it. The effect was very fine, and Tekapo is certainly a beautiful lake, but hardly equal to Pukaki, at least from the bottom end. A few moments spent in enjoying the calm and beauteous scene, and we are away across the bridge, standing at the hotel door.

Such a well-ordered hotel too, it was—a dear little Scotch wife attending to all that was necessary indoors, whilst her husband divided his attention between the bar and stables. Nursing by times her baby, and by times attending to her guests, it struck us all that, if that woman failed in life it would be her husband's

fault, not hers. There was much to attend to that evening. A four-in-hand from Geraldine, consisting of a fine team of chestnuts, imported from Sydney, had just deposited five guests, exclusive of the groom. We formed a party of eight, for "Bruny" had joined us by the way. An American lecturer and two young Englishmen, who were travelling *à cheval*, with gun-cases at saddle-bow, completed the party. The two latter, with guns and "swap," could hardly, we presume, do more than travel at a walk, and "Bruny" incontinently pronounced them to be "new chums." As a rule, "new chums" have but little chaff to encounter. We have had a cadet who looked as much like an old chum on the day of his arrival as he does to-day. But if a new hand elects to go to festive gatherings of the "gentle shepherds" with spats beneath his trousers, he must expect to suffer. We always thought the fashion of wearing spats affected and idiotic in young men, even at home. If it appeared so there, what effect must it not have upon the dwellers in a back country? Adding up the numbers, it will be seen that our hostess had to provide for sixteen guests in the parlour, besides any servants or teamsters in the hall. She was fully equal to the occasion, and if dinner was a little late, it was, when served, quite worthy of her reputation. Remember we were far up country, where travellers arrive in uncertain numbers, and where the facilities for catering to their wants are naturally few.

Strolling about that night in the clear moonlight, we could not but compare the present surroundings with those of many a small Swiss hotel amid the mountains in days gone by. In both cases we saw nature in one of her grandest forms—in both cases all that was wanted to make the rock evolve its hidden gold was man. As in Switzerland, the natural beauty of the country has con-

duced to its present prosperity, so in the mountain valleys of New Zealand the same cause must gradually be effective. It is difficult to conceive that men who live so near to a second Switzerland, distant but 100 or 200 miles from their very doors, can hesitate long before turning such an opportunity to a profit. We cannot but think that the few pioneers who have already tested its advantages will prove the forerunners of comparatively large numbers.

The most prominent object at Tekapo is the handsome bridge which crosses the river close to the spot where it issues from the lake. This has lately been erected by the Mount Cook Road Board, at a cost, including the approaches, of about 7000*l*. The Board recoups itself for the expenditure by charging a small toll, which is cheerfully paid in consideration of the great convenience afforded. A single horseman is charged one shilling, a carriage and pair three shillings, while foot passengers can pass free of toll. The principle of the bridge is suspension; but it is rendered almost perfectly rigid by being directly suspended on three ropes on either side, instead of on one. The longest ropes passing over the heads of solid stone-and-concrete piers, almost meet near the centre. The other two also passing over the piers, meet the roadway at points which make the spaces between the point of contact of the first rope, themselves, and the bases of the piers equidistant. By this principle we should conceive that an equal bearing power is given to the whole length of the structure. The rigidity is further increased by timbers that support the bridge from beneath, their heads far out over the stream, which runs swift and strong below, their bases resting against the foot of the piers. The sole designer and architect of the bridge was Mr. Marchant, the

engineer to the Road Board. Mr. Marchant has also designed a bridge to span the Ohon, another river, in the Mackenzie country, and which the board may probably begin before long. This design, which we had the pleasure of inspecting in the offices at Burke's Pass, appears a model of strength, combined with cheapness in construction.

Next morning the sun shone warm and bright, no cloud visible, save our friend of the previous evening, still resting in the little mountain valley, where it seemed determined to make a permanent abode. That cloud began to haunt us. By what persistency could it keep its solid cumulus unbroken when all around was bright and clear? Driving over the Mackenzie plain, we forded two or three creeks and rivers, passing, as we travelled along, several of the up-country stations. We had been led to expect that we should find but rough-and-tumble buildings: instead of these we saw comfortable houses, surrounded by trees and trim paddocks. The present aspect of the country is wild in the extreme, and the only signs of life which we encountered were a few stray sheep and horses, with a couple of bullock teams taking heavy bales of wool down to Albury. However wild the country may seem at present, it is capable of better things. We have the authority of the Government surveyor for stating that he has tasted good fruit here. We have ourselves seen a fine sample of wheat grown at one of the stations, whilst it is well known that good oats, mangolds, and turnips can be produced. Certain kinds of trees grow luxuriantly so soon as they have obtained sufficient hold upon the soil. It is alleged that the winters make the country too cold for farming purposes, and strong nor'-westers during summer make it too dangerous. But what cannot the

hand of man accomplish? The soil is in many parts rich, and the summer warm, if short. The country which it most nearly resembles is Sweden, and Sweden, we know, produces excellent cereals. Ignorance, and perhaps vested interests, tend to delay settlement; but when the railway is carried beyond Fairlie Creek to Burke's Pass, and perhaps to Tekapo, we venture to predict that a fair future lies before this generally despised district.

A somewhat tedious drive of twenty-eight miles was all forgotten when the beautiful panorama that gradually unfolded itself as we skirted the shores of Lake Pukaki, occupied our sole attention. The sun lit up a scene on which the eye could dwell with long and undiminished pleasure. As a foreground, the ferry house with its island garden, and the ferry itself, with one or two boats lying in the stream, gave life to the picture. Out upon the lake a few small islands, covered with scrub and venerable trees, gave strength to the middle distance; and as a background Mount Cook towered heavenwards, its peak some thirty miles beyond the further extremity of the lake, but looking in the liquid atmosphere as if it sprang perpendicularly from its very surface. The snow-line appeared to descend almost to the level of the water. Seldom, if ever, can a giant mountain be seen in such perfection—standing alone in the full splendour of its white-robed glory. Here no lower ranges intercept the view or detract from its pure symmetry. The minor peaks on either side, snow-capped as itself, served but to lend a greater grandeur to the principal object in the landscape. What an unrivalled situation, we thought, for a new Lucerne or Thun! What fair beauties, hidden from the gaze of all but a favoured few!

But the sun was already verging towards the horizon,

the ferry had got to be crossed, and the camp pitched. Let us away then for the moment. The real luxuries of travelling in a country where hotels are not, and servants are distant, must be attended to. After crossing the ferry, a site for the camp was soon chosen, conveniently near to the river bank; horses were tethered, and the ladies' tent erected. The pot was soon boiling merrily on a blazing fire, lighted at the foot of a grand old boulder. We colonials, accustomed at all times to do many things for ourselves, felt quite at home under these circumstances, and our halting-place soon presented all the appearance of an old-established camp. Those dear old camping days! The perfect freedom from care of that camp life; the merry jest and yarn told at night as we lay stretched at length round the flickering flame; the pleasure of the passing hour—the source of many a future reminiscence! If hotels be built upon the very spot, the luxury may be greater, the expense certainly more considerable; but where then will be the perfect freedom, the self-reliant "camaraderie," which can only exist under the open vault of heaven?

But even in a camp troubles will not altogether forbear us. During breakfast next morning, our horses, having broken their tether, trotted gently past. "Halloo!" said our commander; "there go your horses." "Never mind," we said, "don't bother about them; they'll stop and browse on the other side of the hill; we can get them after breakfast," But could we? Not at all; the wilful brutes must have felt the pleasure of an unaccustomed freedom, and started at once full tilt on a voluntary gallop of fifteen miles. For hours we toiled over that hot plain, lured by hazy objects, which looked at a distance like horses quietly feeding, but which, on a nearer approach, proved to be but weather-worn boulders.

To make a long story short, we did not get them back for two days, when the ferry man kindly secured them for us. The sensation of being horseless in a wild country, like the one we were in, is not pleasant. The probability is discussed as to whether the animals will cross the rivers or not; whether they may not work their way back to the country where they were foaled or reared. Their instinct in this respect stops little short of the marvellous. When once they break from camp, a frequent occurrence, they are often not to be found until they turn up browsing in the accustomed paddock as quietly as if it had never been left. The "Donkey," for so was "Bruny's" horse christened by the young people, for no reason that we could learn except that he was so long-suffering and forbearing, was the only one of the animals which behaved with perfect decency. If the Donkey did break his tether, he was always to be found with his nose in the oat-sack, or quietly nibbling at the grass in the best pasture he could find. He often got loose when wanting water, but after satisfying his thirst, he invariably returned to his favourite feeding-ground. Would that all horses were in this respect like the "Donkey."

Owing to the loss of our horses, the further extension of the trip to Lake Ohon had to be abandoned, but we believe that lake to possess its own wild beauty. Our time was, however, fully occupied by the necessary camp duties and pleasant boating excursions on the lake. On the latter occasions the "General" assumed the more appropriate duties of High Admiral, but we fear that he had an awful crowd of lubbers for a crew. Something of this kind used to take place. He would sing out "Starboard your helm! Starboard, can't you? Don't you see you are taking us bow on to that rock?" To

whom the helmsman, "Which is starboard, father?" "Put your helm to the right, can't you?" came the order. Or when the admiral was at the helm himself, and was endeavouring to make the port in true seaman-like fashion: "Ship your oars!" he would shout; when of course some fair rower would persist in leaving hers at right angles to the gunwale. After repeated commands we did sometimes manage to bring-to pretty creditably, although the admiral would insist upon giving orders with a pipe between his teeth, which may partly account for a somewhat indistinct utterance and the consequent confusion. We may casually mention that it has not yet been ascertained whether the admiral or the writer are the greatest smokers in South Canterbury. But if we both have a weakness, it is for "baccy."

One day our camp was enlivened by the arrival of a party of three ladies and three gentlemen, on their way to the Tasman Glacier. The united muster of buggies and horses caused it to present quite an important appearance. We lunched together, and thoroughly enjoyed such a social gathering in the wilds. Perhaps the magnificent chicken pasty, and excellent preserved milk, which the strangers brought—luxuries unknown to our camp—gave an additional zest to the meal.

It was a sad day when the hour arrived for breaking up camp and returning on our tracks. Sadder still when we gave one long last look upon the dear Pukaki Lake and its beautiful surroundings. But we were supported by the hope, which it is to be trusted may be realized, of a similar expedition to be organized in the future.

CHAPTER IX.

WHAT MANNER OF MEN WE ARE.

In the preceding pages we have endeavoured to depict, in the most realistic language at our command, country life and country occupations as they exist in the colony. Perhaps to some people a few of the incidents related may seem too trivial in their nature to justify any notice in a work which pretends to instruct, or even to amuse. These we would remind that

> "Nought so vile that on the earth doth live,
> But to the earth some special good doth give."

And that

> "Great floods have flown
> From simple sources."

Others might object that the deeper thoughts called into existence by the beauties of that Nature which surrounds us had better be left unexpressed. We cannot think this. We love to find

> "Tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
> Sermons in stones, and good in everything."

Nay, more, we cling to the thought that

> "All places that the eye of heaven visits
> Are to a wise man ports and happy havens."

When beginning the present chapter, the words of

the same great poet, as put into the mouth of Brutus, start almost involuntarily to the lips :—

> "There is a tide in the affairs of men,
> Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune;
> Omitted, all the voyage of their life
> Is bound in shallows and in miseries."

Such a passage reminds us of the full significance of the subject which we are about to consider. But while discussing it, one fact, of which no thoughtful man can doubt, namely, that

> There's a divinity that shapes our ends,
> Rough hew them how we will,

must ever be kept in view. To feel that our usefulness in life, so far as regards our present sphere, is closed for ever; to feel an inward force, despite our very selves, pointing to new fields in which to labour,—may tinge the mind with sadness for what is past, but cannot fail to give new hopes and incite to fresh exertion. To those who only float with the stream, the idle puppets of the idle hour, an internal force like that described may seem ideal. To those who have wrestled with that force it is a stern reality. To one who has no ties at home—to whom the world lies open, fair, and tempting; to him who finds no reasonable prospect of supporting or promoting the future interests of his family—to these, and such as these, emigration legitimately offers its attractions. To one who with wilful petulance seeks to escape from home restraint or irksome duties, or perhaps would find in foreign lands release from the holiest ties, emigration would say, "Forbear, and do thy duty in that position of life to which thou hast been called." There is a season for all things—a place for all men. The peer should not seek to be a commoner; the commoner should

not envy those whom Providence has placed above himself. Happy the man who can not only agree with, but act up to the old, old motto, "*Avec ce que je tiens, je reste content.*" To know how far one ought to dare, must be left to the inner conscience; for who but it can tell? A friend once wrote, "It is a serious matter to leave one's country." And so it is. But circumstances may justify the change; and if so, sail forth with faith and confidence, being sure the while to keep unsullied that honour and religion on which the majority of our nation so justly prides itself. Emigration must *always* be looked upon as a serious matter, and a course not to be adopted without due consideration. That, under certain circumstances, it is advantageous both to the State and to the individual, experience clearly demonstrates. Without it, what would the United States have been to-day? Where Canada? Where the Australasian Colonies? What would be the position of those at home if North America were not, and Australasia yet in the hands of untutored savages?

But what manner of men make suitable colonists? That is the question. Certainly not the *habitué* of the pavements, unless he be prepared to doff his old ideas. Certainly not he to whom work is irksome. Certainly not the dissolute, who has wasted his substance in degrading self-indulgence. Unless the leopard can change his spots, or the Ethiopian his skin; all these had better keep away. To succeed as a colonist requires a man of sterling qualifications; the hard worker—the patient one. To obtain success is as difficult as at home, perhaps more so; and this is a point which ought to be fully recognized. But in order to give some conception of what future arrivals should be, perhaps it will be better to describe what manner of men we are. And,

as, in the colony, life for the most part resolves itself into working upward from small beginnings, it will be more consistent to begin with the labourer, and, step by step, arrive at the employer of labour.

We have already alluded to that class of men called "swaggers," some of the most worthless of whom we have compared to the idle casuals of the English workhouse. Of these nothing more need be said. They are the waifs and strays of society, to be found in every country and in every clime. Their proportion to the population of New Zealand is no greater than it is elsewhere. But the better part of our peripatetic labourers, that which prefers a roving life, yet is at the same time willing to work, deserves more particular mention. It forms a class peculiar to itself; full of good intentions; but if of the true breed, rarely carrying such intentions to good effect. Often do you hear one say, "I've done with drink; I've had enough of that;" or, "I think I shall settle down now; I'm getting tired of knocking about." But the cheque once more in hand, the self-same man in a few days is reduced to his normal condition—of being without a penny in his pocket. And yet these men are not drunkards in the ordinary sense of the word; they cannot fairly be called slaves to drink. What they do is done more in the spirit of good-fellowship, or from the love of excitement, than from the love of liquor. They are often good fellows in their way; kind and liberal to each other; and only their own enemies. We have heard young fellows say, who have had to work and camp together with them, that they would rather be in such company than in that of men who would generally be considered more respectable and the steadier workmen. This is easily to be understood. The steady man has migrated

from some country side which has furnished his sole experience of life. His ideas are contracted, his knowledge of the world *nil.* But these "swaggers" have been in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. As one of them once said, "It's the first start, sir; after that, all comes easy." Their minds are stored with reminiscences; their manners more or less polished by contact with the world. Their speech, for the most part, is devoid of provincialisms, whether of accent or idiom. It can readily be understood which of the two classes would, for a time, be productive of the most agreeable companionship. Facts of this kind are more readily grasped from the relation of real experiences than from the expression of abstract speculations. A few instances out of the many which can every day be met with, will do more to confirm the above remarks than any amplification of individual opinions.

An example or two, taken from a "camp" attending the machine which thrashed our grain this year, will, without going further afield, prove sufficient for the purpose. The cook attached to this camp could not exactly be called an idler, for he had upon his hands almost as much as he could attend to. But camp cooking is of such a nature, that a man can perform his duties, and at the same time find place for gossip. In the present instance our cook was somewhat of a character. He had been in the line, the artillery, and the navy. He had been officer's servant and serjeant's batman. He had been a coffin-maker in Texas; and for six months, at an out-station, had herded cattle in the same country. He had worked on the American lakes, and been employed at a skating-rink at Campinas, in the province of St. Paulo, Brazil. He had driven an engine in a brickyard at Botafogo, a suburb of Rio de Janeiro,

from which occupation he suddenly found himself, in consequence of an accident, converted into an indoor patient at the hospital. There, after his recovery, he settled down for a time as paid servant, until one day, when in attendance in the dissecting-room, the doctor expressed a wish to see his lungs upon the table. This made him quake; but a feeling had been growing, as each case of fever came in, that he must sooner or later become a victim. One day the doctor said, when they were busy with a subject, "Won't you take a glass of that brandy?" A mortal terror seized him lest it should be drugged, and that if he took a pull at the bottle, no power on earth could save him from imminent dissection. This clenched the matter, and behold our friend a wanderer once more. He had been in India, and seen service in Afghanistan; at the Cape, and was mixed up in some capacity with the Zulu war. He had shipped from New Orleans, and often crossed the North Atlantic; and, finally, after being ship's cook, found himself in New Zealand, where, as we write, he serves in the latter capacity in a migratory camp. What he will next become, heaven only knows. But, at all events, a very good cook he makes; dressed with white cap and clean white apron, such as would have delighted the heart of the late M. Soyer.

Possibly some of his yarns may be exaggerated, for it is the privilege of all old travellers to improve upon their experiences; but that the foundation of them was the result of actual travel, we can vouch from our knowledge of the people, countries, and towns which he described. Those of his stories which we were not in a position to verify, we believe to be true from analogical deduction. That he had been a soldier was evident from his well-shaven, cleanly appearance; and perhaps it may warm

the heart of the *vieux militaire* to know that, as a rule, the old soldier in the colonies never forgets his previous education; that long after the uniform has been discarded, a former discipline reasserts itself by a greater cleanliness and method than is to be found amongst the general crowd. But this our friend was particularly neat and clean. And why was this? Had he not drilled in the ranks, side by side with Lord Cole, when that nobleman was learning his goose-step? had he not, even if at a distance and unknown to himself, seen and realized the power that civilization and culture have on man!

This is how our cookey became a coffin-maker. Strolling about one morning, without a cent in his pocket, he saw the following notice affixed to a shop window:—"Wanted, a smart man, inquire within." By a short process of mental arithmetic, he arrived at the conclusion that he was smart enough at all events to apply. "What shall I have to do?" said he to the "boss." "Waal, I guess I require a straight-up, smart coffin-maker." "I'm only a joiner," thought our friend, "but possibly I might make a coffin. Anyhow here goes." "'I'm your man,' I says, 'but sorrow a bite I've had, and I feels tired. I'll just sit down, and start work to-morrow.' You see, sir, he was making a coffin, and I wanted to see how he did it. Next morning I started work, and when the first coffin was finished, I asked him how it would do. 'That's jest fine,' says he; and that's how I became a coffin-maker."

On another occasion, when the consequences might have been more serious, this is how it happened. "During the Afghan war I volunteered for the front, and marched with the contingent to the up-country depôt. When the draft was ordered on, my name, by some accident, was

not included on the roll. 'I beg pardon, sir,' said I to the officer, 'but I volunteered for the front, and my name is not on the roll.' 'Well, it can't be helped now,' said he; 'you're wanted here, my man.' It wasn't so much that I wanted glory, but I thought I should find more loot at the front; and go I would. That night I changed my uniform for a kind of brown dress used by the natives attached to the camp, and, with a loaf of bread, away I went. Sometimes I followed the road, sometimes the telegraph posts, and crossed the rivers by the railway bridges, until I came to the chain of sentries round the camp which formed a sort of reserve to the army in front. It was no use dodging any more, so up I walked to the first sentry and gives myself in charge. They took me before the officers, and I says, 'I'm a soldier of the —th Regiment wishing to go to the front.' 'Why arn't you attached?' says they; 'where's your company?' 'I don't know,' I says, 'where my company is; but they would not let me come, so I came by myself.' 'Well,' says they, 'we don't know what to do with you, or whether you are a soldier or deserter; but as you've come so far we suppose you don't mean to desert.' 'Not at all,' says I, 'I want to go to the front.' Well, it was arranged that I was to be a prisoner at large, able to go about the lines, but to answer to my name when called upon. So I started once more for the front. But matters were getting dangerous for stragglers in those passes, and when I met a troop of the commissariat, who were just about to camp, I joined their mess and thought I'd better return with them; and so I did. Life was very jolly in the camp, and what with my penny whistle and a story or two thrown in now and again, they got accustomed to me round the camp-fires. The officers, too, they came

and listened; and when it was thought that the enemy was upon us, and they all set to work to make trenches—well, I worked as hard as any. I didn't tell them it was as much to save my own skin as theirs; so I got a good deal of glory from it. The end of it all was that I was sent back to the depôt, and the officer says, 'Really I don't know what to do with you, my boy; I've got a good character back with you. You'll be let off for the payment of a new kit.' "

So run the stories as told round the camp-fire, growing no doubt with every repetition: a modicum of truth mixed with a considerable amount of hyperbole. We said to cookey one day, when he was describing one out of the various regiments in which he had served, "Why you must be one of those fellows who enlist for the sake of the bounty, and afterwards take French leave as soon as possible." The man looked blank for the moment, but rallying to the defence he said, "Of course I was, until they got to know me too well." And yet that man once met my wife, as she was passing into the harvest-field, with a "Please, marm, allow me to open the gate; it will soil your gloves. It is such a pleasure to meet a gentleman who has travelled so much as Mr. Bradshaw." Pray observe the equality which travelling had engendered, but also the politeness which it had called forth. What would Hodge have done in a similar situation? Truly travelling "*emollit mores nec sinit esse feroces.*" We are inclined to think that, beyond and besides a natural tendency to rove, many of these men are confirmed in their vagrant habits by the glimpse which they have had of a life higher and far superior to their own. This tends to unsettle, and prevents them from desiring to fall back upon their old status in society. Many do so, no doubt; but the more aspiring seek in the excite-

ment of the camp to realize among themselves a more exalted ideal.

In the same camp could be found one who could sing many an Italian street song, with true hurdy-gurdy intonation and nasal twang. Another could talk of Florence, Trieste, Ancona, and even of the little republic of San Marino. A third had been in the Royal Artillery.

It would be superfluous to fill these pages with more instances of the kind. Enough has been said to show the class of men who form the migratory working poputation of the colony. It is not probable that any will be induced to become one of the number from a perusal of this volume. Yet who knows? Men of this sort seem as it were to fall from the skies, and to be recruited by a natural destiny. Most probably they are largely composed of deserters from ships, or of thorough born and bred colonial wanderers. The steady station or farm hand comes from an altogether different stock. These no more mix with the "swagger" than oil with water. The shepherd is most probably from the Highlands of Scotland, sprung from an industrious, God-fearing ancestry, and carrying into his new country a similar tone, shorn though it be, through wider contact with the world, of some of its primitive superstition and native narrow-mindedness. The ordinary English shepherd, well up as he may be in his work, would, as yet, find some difficulty in securing a situation. His habits and movements would be thought too slow. The man who is wanted here, is one who can ride up hill and down dale, taking note as he goes along of what may require his immediate attention. As a rule, the English shepherd would be out of his element. The farm hands from Scotland, Yorkshire, Lancashire, Nottinghamshire, and possibly from some of the western counties, are most

suited of all English labourers for this colony. Those from the clays of Kent and Sussex, from Hampshire or Wiltshire, or any of the true types of the unqualified yokel, are, with but few exceptions, too slow in their movements. They have been accustomed to drive four horses in a string, with a single-furrow plough and a boy to help; here they would have to manage three horses abreast and a double-furrow plough, and—they can't do it. They are always tinkering, instead of getting on. At present the best men consist of those coming from the above-named counties, with a small proportion from the north of Ireland. Men from the south of Ireland may generally be seen following the contractor's plough, or, at the best, shearing, and working at piece-work on their own account. They are not generally much sought after for permanent situations. Men with thews and sinews of their own can generally earn good wages, say from six shillings per diem upwards. Perhaps to-day the present rate may be seven shillings; but to earn this, real work must be done. A man at this wage will soon drop out of a gang if his capacity for work does not come up to the fixed standard of the contractor. Yet, with work offering at six shillings a day, men were to be found during the past year on strike. They paraded the streets, with watches inside and chains outside their waistcoats; in some instances with rings on their fingers; in most, clad in a good suit of broadcloth. They sought to raise a cry in favour of the "unemployed." In their opinion, a man was unemployed who could not get eight shillings a day. It is hardly necessary to say that the Ministers at Wellington, to whom they applied for a relief of their grievances, did not see it; that the public did not see it; and that but little sympathy was evoked in their favour, even among the industrious

of the working classes. While the cry was at its height, men over and over again refused to work at six shillings a day. What they wanted was eight. Rather than not get eight, they would not work at all. It must be remembered, when considering their case, that living is cheap; that if a man gets thirty-six shillings a week, fifteen shillings in camp and twenty shillings in town will pay for board and lodging, leaving at least a clear sixteen shillings for luxuries or the savings-bank. Such are the circumstances under which the cry of the unemployed was raised. The men at last seem to have realized their true position, and feel that for some time to come, wages will not rule at the extravagant rate at which they did under the high pressure of an extensive public works policy; perhaps never again!

Carpenters, stonemasons, and brick-setters receive a handsome wage, varying from eight to fourteen shillings a day, according to the supply of labour, and the necessities of trade. But when considering these high wages, it must be remembered that the men take certain risk. They are not always paid down weekly, as at home; and owing to the contractors being, in many instances, men of straw, they are sometimes fortunate if able to secure a fair dividend on the balance owing for work done. Many instances of this kind have come under our notice, and we think it is safer to assume that it would be far better for a workman to accept lower wages under a solvent contractor, than to grasp at the higher rates which could possibly be squeezed out of the weaker employer.

There are depressions in trade in New Zealand as elsewhere, when labour is in poor demand and full supply. But take one time with another, the steady mechanic, artisan, or day-labourer, will do as well.

The bank or mercantile clerk, the shop-keeper's assistant, and men fitted for similar positions, had better stay at home, unless coming out under positive engagement. They would find the pay to be no higher, and the difficulty of securing employment perhaps greater. The shop-keeper prefers an assistant who knows the wants of his customers, and already understands the run of the trade. He might probably prefer one who had been in some rival establishment, and who could possibly give him a hint as to what was being done in other stores. Numerous young fellows, the sons of well-known clerks or business-men, are waiting the chance of a vacancy turning up among the junior stools in the merchant's counting-house; and it is the same in the banks. If an advertisement appears in the daily papers, perhaps thirty or forty applications are the immediate result, and for junior clerkships the probability is that the lowest tender will be accepted, provided satisfactory references are forthcoming. These conditions do not offer much temptation to the emigrant. We believe, too, that the liberal education provided at the Government schools will tend, as it has done at home and in Germany, to swell the ranks of those seeking what may be called "genteel" employment, in preference to the harder lot of the tillers of the soil.

But if New Zealand be unsuitable for the clerk or shop-keeper's assistant, what can be said in its favour on behalf of those pampered beings usually known as domestic servants? We can see them now. Breakfast, with meat, at eight; lunch, with beer and cheese, at eleven; dinner, with beer, at one; tea at four or five; the whole to conclude with supper and beer at nine. Then the free tap running, when the carriage of some neighbour turns into the stable-yard. The more of them

that there were, the less each one did. It once happened, in a house where butler, two footmen, and a little boy page were kept, that the mistress suggested that the small page should occasionally go to the village school. "But please, mum," says the butler, "who's to do the work?" With cook and kitchen-maid it used to be possible to get a good dinner. With housekeeper, cook, kitchen and scullery-maids, the idea would often occur, owing to the way dinner was served, that the scullery-maid performed most of the work, with occasional assistance from the kitchen-maid in the matter of pastry and jellies. We have often pictured to ourselves the housekeeper in the still-room, with foot on fender, reading the daily papers; and then the upper butler, to attend to the cellar and his master's clothes; the under butler to look after the silver, with two creatures below him to do the washing up, until, attired in gorgeous livery, they entered upon the irksome duties of the afternoon. That housemaid, too, with her "I should be glad to oblige you, mum; but please, mum, it's not my place." Whose place is it then, my good lady, if not yours to obey your mistress's orders, and in some part earn your wage and expensive keep? The tyranny of those domestics! their incessant bickerings and constant fits of indigestion! We do not advise them to come to the colonies; but at the same time it might do them good to leave still-room and hall, and take a short trip across the seas. Their digestion would improve, and their tempers be less readily moved. But not theirs all the fault; they are but the victims and the outcome of a too luxurious society.[1]

[1] Three days after penning this sentence we read an article in *The World*, which, when considering the conduct of some noble peers, said, "It is the system, quite as much as the individuals, who are singled out by circumstances as the chief sinners, that is to blame."

Nevertheless it would occasionally do good to treat some domestics as bluff King Hal, according to Fuller, treated the worthy Abbot of Reading.[2] The king, after a day's hunting in the forest of Windsor, found himself at the door of the abbey. Soon the abbot had placed before him a sirloin of beef, "on which the king laid on lustily." Whether the king was not recognized under his hunting costume, or their host was altogether ignorant of his person, history sayeth not. But watching with envy an appetite sharpened with exercise, the abbot cried, "I would give a hundred pounds on condition I could feed so lustily on beef as you do. Alas! my weak and squeezie stomach will hardly digest the wing of a small rabbit or chicken." Some weeks afterwards the abbot was brought up to London and clapt in the tower, kept close prisoner, and fed for a short time on bread and water. Yet it appears that his mind was more filled with fears, than his body empty of food, as to how he had incurred the king's displeasure. "At last a sirloin of beef was set before him, of which the abbot fed as the farmer of his grange, and verified the proverb that two hungry meals make the third a glutton. In springs King Henry, out of a private lobby where he had placed himself, the invisible spectator of the abbot's behaviour. 'My Lord,' quoth the king, 'presently deposit your hundred pounds in gold, or else no going hence all the days of your life. I have been your physician, to cure you of your squeezie stomach; and here, as I deserve, I demand my fee for the same.' The abbot down with his dust, and glad he had escaped to return to Reading." Or perhaps a treatment similar to the following might have a salutary effect. In steps the butler with, "Please,

[2] Taken, in the absence of dear old Fuller, from "The Book of the Thames."

sir, will you inform me who is to lay the cloth for supper in the 'all. The coachman says Thomas his not to do it. Has for the 'ousekeeper, she says hit's not the duty of the girls hin the kitchen, and hi'm sure, sir, William 'as too much to do, what with 'is silver and hall." "Well," says the squire, "if you can't arrange it amongst yourselves, come to me and I will do it for you." Needless to say, nothing more was heard of the matter.

Whatever value the higher class of domestics put upon their services at home, they would not have much "show" in the colony. It is not the ornamental, but the useful material which is wanted. Possibly a cook worth 50*l.* at home, would not here get more than 40*l.* and for this she would have to wash up, peel potatoes, and do the whole work of the kitchen. She would most probably have to do her own and the family's washing. A cook, if she would so far condescend, might prove useful; but imagination fails us when endeavouring to devise what could be found wherewith to utilize the portly butler, or John Thomas, although the latter might stand six foot in his stockings. What is wanted, is a good supply of "maids of all work,"—low creatures, people at home may think, but here eminently useful. We want women able to roast and boil, able to wash and get up linen; and willing, above all, to learn their multifarious duties. Their value would range at from 40*l.* for the old and experienced hand to 20*l.* for the beginner. Such wages may seem high, but the cost of necessaries is cheap. The difference in the cost of servants at home and in the colony appears to be, that at home most of the money expended upon servants goes to the butcher, the brewer, and other tradespeople, and but comparatively little in wages; in

the colony, the sum expended for keep is far less, whilst that which goes to the servant is far more.

When we come to the advantages offered by the colony to tradespeople, we confess it approaches a serious difficulty. We shall be considering a venture, the success of which depends more upon individual capacity, than upon the prosperity of tradesmen as a class. The persons we have already alluded to, depend for their subsistence more immediately upon others. They are but the human machines by whose assistance the capitalist matures his plans. Already in New Zealand we can find the prosperous tradesman and his reverse. The new arrival must necessarily, in process of time, be merged into one or other of the two categories. Can any writer say into which? From personal knowledge he might incline to decide one way or the other, but it would be impossible to determine positively. But putting aside personal qualifications, it is difficult to say what inducement the colony holds out to people intending to open a new business connexion. On the one hand can be seen, a gradually increasing population, and some firms undoubtedly prosperous; on the other, a spirit of co-operation gradually taking root, both amongst producers and consumers, with many a tradesman struggling for existence. Ever since the formation of the colony, the principle has been long-dated bills, with high prices and long credits as a necessary consequence. To-day the tendency is, and will be for the future, towards small profits and quick returns. For the new comer to create a cash business would be a difficult matter; but unless he possesses sufficient capital to buy on short terms and sell for cash, or at all events on monthly payments, we should feel very doubtful as to the result. The difficulty in the colony, up to the present, has been to get cash.

Originally business, except at the very outset, was arranged in a free and easy sort of way. It is but now that people are beginning to realize that, if they are to succeed at all, their conduct must be ruled by the same principles which prevail elsewhere. But how can we determine for the individual, when such instances as those of Messrs. Day and Martin, Messrs. Gilbey, and others, stare us in the face? We can but talk generalities.

New Zealand undoubtedly offers great advantages to the tenant farmer, but it may be doubted whether it will obtain many emigrants from this class. The farmer is a man more or less wedded to his country side, certainly to his traditions and methods of cultivation. The very nature of his profession, depending as it greatly does upon seasons, leads him, when in difficulty, to hope with Mr. Micawber that "something will turn up." He will trust to chance rather than face the patent conclusion to be derived from the present and the past. He fails to see, or at all events for a long period did fail to see, that his present difficulties do not arise solely from bad harvests, but that foreign competition and extravagant rentals form important factors in the result; that freights have gradually become cheaper both by sea and land; and that a smaller capital expended in other countries can produce a greater percentage than a larger one when employed at home; that the genius of man, by constructing bridges where were formerly impassable rivers, by building vessels with a maximum of speed and a minimum of outlay, and by turning unproductive wastes into fruitful farms, has by these means, and many more than these, helped to work against him, and still will work. It has been found, both by landlord and tenant, that land, which had for long years been looked upon as a safe investment, was in the end to prove

like other property, of uncertain value and subject to change. To our mind it is clear, and has been clear for some time past, that, as regards agriculture in England, we are on the eve of a great and permanent change. We remember some years ago speaking to a gentleman—a Swede by birth, but long resident in the United States, and himself a large landed proprietor in North Carolina—on this subject. While endorsing the views then expressed, he was astonished that they should be held by an Englishman. When similar thoughts were propounded before fellow-countrymen, the reply invariably was, "Oh, but land always has been and always will be a good investment." And a good investment it will be once more, but not until a different relation exists between landlord and tenant, nor until the business of cultivation ceases to be paid for as a luxury, and reassumes its true commercial value as compared with land in other countries. England, so far as regards the landed interest, is undergoing a quiet but great social revolution. Fancy and residential properties may sustain an artificial value, but purely agricultural land must find its true level. Farmers will probably remain by the ship as long as possible.

Such is the opinion of one of their own delegates, the Mr. Hering before quoted. This gentleman has written back to us an account of his home experiences. He says, "The magnificent climate, with the more liberal tone of public feeling existing in the colony of New Zealand, are alone great temptations to leave this land of clouds and hereditary prejudices. Yet I believe very few will be found to follow my example, the general complaint amongst farmers being, 'It is too late; our capital is gone now, and farming is not worth following in any part of the world, to induce us to try again at the bottom

rung of the ladder.'" But, then, is this the feeling which has made Englishmen what they are—the greatest power in the world? Is this the feeling which animated our soldiers when they fought and beat the first Napoleon, although that great strategist declared them to be tactically annihilated? Is this the feeling which has stirred many of us when temporarily down in our luck, to try and try again, until success has crowned our efforts? We think not. It is but the doctrine of the Mussulman, who at the first reverse of fortune bows his head, and cries "It is the will of Allah; Allah be praised." If any hold such views, we would say pointedly and without reserve, "New Zealand is not the place for you. Better to remain at home, and meet your appointed destiny." To those brother farmers who still possess means and have the necessary pluck, we would say, "Come, by all means, and try your fortune. Most probably your very pluck will ensure an ultimate success."

But how much capital, it may be asked, is necessary to start a farmer with a fair chance of success? It is difficult to say. Much depends upon character and habits. It would be risky to recommend any farmer, who has lived as such on a small farm at home, to start with less than 1000*l.* A man may succeed with less, and many have done so, aided by their own frugality and industry. But to come as a farmer with much less than 1000*l.* would be almost tantamount to working upwards from the very bottom.

Those possessing from 2000*l.* to 3000*l.* should do well. Those whose capital exceeds 5000*l.* may, with patience and common sense, do after a time pretty much as they like. It will be always advisable, and almost necessary, for men with the smallest capital named, to follow their

plough, and with their families do most of the ordinary work of the farm.

Do such ideas seem strange to those who think they have but to come abroad, and lo! a mine of gold lies at their very feet? We feel that many hold such opinions. We once sailed with a young man to Buenos Ayres who landed at that place with 30*l.* in his pocket. One week at an expensive hotel almost dissipated his capital. A fortnight after arriving he was to be seen behind a bar, mixing cock-tails for sailors on the beach. To those living at home, and associating with a certain set, it is hard to realize the class of men sometimes thrown broadcast upon the world. That a young man, the son of a clergyman, should travel to Buenos Ayres within the last few years, paying first-class fare by Royal Mail steamer, and expect, as he did, upon his arrival to find the whole world ready to jump into his arms, is a case which seems to border upon the improbable. To hear another young emigrant ask his neighbour in the saloon, "Please, sir, at your place do you kill a whole sheep at a time?" appears almost irresistible to the risible faculties, were it not all so sad. Sometimes when people travel in Switzerland, they exclaim, "Where on earth do all these people come from?" Travellers of the world may well ask, "What on earth made such fellows as these leave their nurses and their homes?"

One great objection against farming in the colonies has been urged in our presence by farmers in the old country. It is that the middle men get most of the profits. We can assure any such objectors that now, at all events, this is not the case. Farmers' co-operations exist both in Canterbury and Otago, which secure to members their seeds and stores at the cheapest possible rates, and afford a ready means of disposing of produce with but the

chance of the condition of the home market at the time of arrival. Moreover, competition amongst buyers is rapidly increasing.

To cadets of good families, without means, New Zealand offers but little chance of success. These had much better stay at home. But young men of this class with about 5000*l.* can generally do well. It is hardly to be expected that they can succeed so well with so small a capital as the experienced farmer. Possibly more mistakes will be made at first, and heavier losses encountered. Very few can expect to make much the first year or two after commencing business in a new country; but on the other hand, farming, as at present necessary, may easily be picked up; its refinements can be left to future experience. Often a partner is to be found who will help to lighten first responsibilities. Life in New Zealand possesses great charms to young men of the better classes, but the colony is above all things suited to a man in the position of one with whom we were once slightly acquainted. He was passionately fond of the country, and country pursuits. His income amounted to about 1000*l.* or 1200*l.* a year. He was married, and during the preceding ten years his wife had presented him with a healthy and blooming boy, as every Christmas came. She had done this up to the termination of our casual acquaintance, so that it is difficult to form an estimate of what the present total may be. Possessing just sufficient income for the present, his position would become worse when the education of his sons commenced, or when they had to be started in life. In New Zealand he would find education both good and cheap, and the fortune which he could command would place him in a most comfortable position.

Perhaps colonial life is more suited to men who have

seen something of the world than to the entirely young. These colonies are far away, pleasant in themselves, but far removed from all that has made life dear before. The young are apt to regret the merry days of boyhood and early manhood—the only experience of life which they possess. They are apt to pine for amusements and excitements of which they have but barely tasted, and know only by hearsay. The older man, who has already learned that "all is not gold that glitters," is more likely to settle down in a new home and find contentment. We do not say that this must be always the case, but it is a possible consequence of emigration.

The prodigals to be found in good supply in many another country, are in New Zealand, if not conspicuous by their absence, at least few and far between. A healthy life with hard work, and plenty of it, will usually be the settler's lot.

CHAPTER X.

THE FINANCIAL CONDITION OF THE COLONY.

When considering the financial condition of New Zealand it may be better to state that elaborate tables of statistics form no part of the plan about to be adopted in the present chapter. It will, we think, be better to handle the subject in a more general and liberal sense. It is a matter of almost universal experience that statistics can be interpreted to support the preconceived theories of any writer. This has been the case not only when considering governmental statistics, but those of any department of trade. It has been found that conclusions drawn from figures alone, very often prove delusive, because few have the necessary aptitude for reading the lessons which they should teach. Too many read by the imperfect light of the figures, and few consider them when illuminated by the touch of concurrent circumstances. To explain our meaning more clearly; a person wishes to compare one set of figures with another: these he may select from two or more epochs in the history of a trade, or from the contemporaneous returns of two or more countries. From them he probably evolves a theory based upon deductions narrow in the extreme; and narrow for this reason—his argument is founded solely on results extracted from the figures which have been collected, no consideration being taken

of the causes which have produced the very figures. He may not, perhaps, have taken the trouble to ascertain whether the two or more sets of figures are capable of comparison when viewed by the aid of their several productive causes. How common for the merchant or speculator to be ruined by deductions drawn from much studied statistics—deductions which, from collateral causes, may be delusive, and, at the same time, render him oblivious to the small black cloud just showing above the horizon! How frequently have the predictions of the politician, so far as they were based upon statistics, been falsified by subsequent events! We believe then that the gift of reading figures and estimating their true value when combined with outside potentials, is a talent bestowed on only a few. Each year produces its senior wrangler, but each senior wrangler is not necessarily an Adam Smith or a John Stuart Mill. The wrangler may have the gift, and truly it is a great gift, of evolving, by a technical process, incontrovertible results from a given problem. But that done, he may not have the power of putting the results obtained into a practical form for the benefit of his own and future generations. To do so requires the co-existence of a different order of intellect. To become senior wrangler requires the inductive faculties to be developed to their fullest extent; to become an Adam Smith or John Stuart Mill, demands the union of deductive and inductive powers in a most perfect consonance. To put the matter in plain words, few possess true genius united with strong common sense.

Feeling, then, that mere statistics are often misleading and somewhat wearisome to the general reader, we prefer to approach the present subject by broad touches rather than by statistical deduction. By following this plan a

matter of great importance, but necessarily dry in itself, will be invested with greater interest.

Among those who grasp the true stability of New Zealand nothing tends more to excite annoyance than the depreciatory articles which have, from time to time, appeared in some of the home papers on the subject of its financial condition. It is not that the colony would avoid criticism; it is not that it believes that some of the proceedings of past Governments are not open to censure; neither does it deny that, in the management of its finances, it has sometimes carried too much sail. It is, on the contrary, grateful for sound advice that helps it to realize that it may be going too fast, and that it is time to take in the studding-sails. But what is vexatious, and sometimes excites a passing indignation, is to find some ignorant or designing stock-jobber hint at repudiation, or compare this land to Chili and Peru, to Bolivia, or to Paraguay. We know that New Zealand has had difficulties in the past, and must inevitably have other difficulties in the future. We realize the fact that there is a shady as well as a sunny side to the fence; that men must work, and sometimes fail, not only here, but all the world over. But we would that our critics should consider us as people of like fashion with themselves, as a country possessing happy and contented English homes, nor ever be led to such an exhibition of crass ignorance again. Generally speaking, a leader in the *Times*, or other first-class daily, is well considered, founded on fact, and worthy of deep thought, because the talent devoted to its production is of a high order, and carefully selected. But it is those "city articles" which provoke so much distrust—not when they chronicle the past, but when they give instruction for the future. When we find a paragraph commencing, "We

have it on the best authority that a rise may shortly be expected in London and Brighton Ordinaries, which for some time past have been neglected, and, in our opinion, more than they should have been when comparing their present value with the prices ruling for similar securities," the idea occurs that "the best authority" must be first cousin to some holder who wants to be in for a good thing. Or when the statement is made, that "North Easterns have now risen to a point which indicates a probable decline in value," we wonder who it is that is "short." The informant in these cases is surely not the able operator who forces the rise, or would sell before the fall. To betray his opinion, would be to spoil the market. And here, parenthetically, we cannot refrain from mentioning our great admiration for the late Lord Beaconsfield, in so far as regards his purchase of the Suez Canal shares. Owing to the secret conduct of the transaction, he has been called both a trickster and a charlatan. It has been stated that, had he been honest, he would have consulted his party, or taken the opinion of the House, before so deeply implicating the nation. But who, with any particle of common sense, would have thought of such a course? If it was for the welfare of the empire to possess a positive interest in the most important highway of the world, was the fact to be shouted from the housetops and canvassed in Parliament? Had it been so, every bourse in Europe would have rejoiced at the opportunity, and the cost of the purchase to the nation, without any great stretch of imagination, would have been quadrupled.

In quoting these supposititious cases, the object which we have had in view is to show that "city articles" are not always to be relied upon, and that, in spite of them, New Zealand securities, although subject to the ordinary

fluctuations of the market, may be as good stock as any investor can hold. This it will be attempted to prove more clearly as we proceed.

It has often been argued that New Zealand has a heavier debt, in proportion to its population and area, than any of the other Australian Colonies. This may be true; but it may, at the same time, represent only half the truth. It is clear that a debt amounting to 60*l.* per head of the population might, under certain conditions, be a safer security than one which amounted to only 10*l.* per head. It might be that in the one case the money had been put to productive uses, with the principal remaining intact; in the other, that a large proportion of it, if not the whole amount, had been squandered in unproductive works. It might be that in the former case the country was, from its fertility, able to stand the drain upon its resources, while in the latter it was too sterile to do so. And possibly it might be, that the debt of 60*l.* per head was backed by relatively far larger private resources and means than the one of 10*l.* It has often been stated that if some of the defaulting States of North America, as Arkansas, were to be sold up, the entire proceeds would prove unequal to repay the public indebtedness. But what, if such a course were adopted, would be the case with New Zealand?

On the 31st March, 1881, the net public debt of the colony amounted, according to the Treasurer's financial statement, to 27,108,269*l.*[1] The question arises, what assets has the country to show to warrant such an indebtedness? The answer we believe to be sufficiently clear. Of this debt, 10,540,590*l.* had been sunk in the formation and equipment of 1287 miles of railway, now

[1] See Appendix, Table L.

yielding $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. on the cost of construction. The "Property Assessment Act of 1879" showed the total private capital of the colony available for assessment, to be 73,958,182*l.*, exclusive of lands yet in the possession of the natives. But when we further consider that acres upon acres of freehold virgin soil still remain uncultivated, when we add to this the value of the leasehold runs and the large existing masses of forest timber, it will be found that the public creditors of New Zealand are secured by real property, over and over again. It will be seen that in the above calculation no credit has been taken for the untold mineral wealth which lies in large quantities below the surface. Our remarks are for the moment confined to the public debt; only public indebtedness does not bear upon the subject, and is entirely beside the question. It matters nothing to the holders of New Zealand bonds whether the mortgagee or mortgagor is the person to whom he must look for payment; both are ultimately liable. The existence of the two, in fact, gives a double security for the performance of the contract. It may surprise some to learn that, when the country was last year first rated for the property tax, the largest individual estate was found to be of the rateable value of 1,500,000*l.*, and that many others, although not equally large, were rated at enormous sums.

But it may be said, this is all very well; you may repudiate, or the drain upon your resources may be so great as to preclude you for a time from paying interest on your loans. Both these arguments are untenable. In the first place, repudiation would be impossible. The people of the colony would not stand it. They would at once overturn a government which even hinted at such a course. They are not South American Spaniards, or effete Mussulmen, both of whom look upon their creditors

as natural enemies, or as soft fools whom it is a duty to ease of so much money as can be got. They are fellow-countrymen with yourselves; with friends, brothers, fathers, yet living in your midst. They dare no more to stain the honour of the British Empire, of which they form a fractional part, than dare England itself. Again, it would be impossible that such an extreme case could occur as the drain being too great to permit the colony to fulfil its engagements. Such a condition could only arrive under the pressure of some great national calamity, the like of which it is impossible to conceive. Under normal circumstances the great wealth invested in the country renders such a contingency to be purely imaginary.

An additional security is to be found in the rapid expansion of a new country. For people living in the Old World it is difficult to realize what this means. Perhaps the near example of the United States has given some idea of the powerful expansiveness characteristic of all new lands. New Zealand is so far remote, and so seldom brought prominently before the English public, that a probability exists of the expansion, in her case, being little heeded, except by those already interested in the colony. Yet it is very great. For example, the number of acres under crop and sown with English grasses, in the two islands, was, in 1881, 4,768,192; in 1882, 5,189,106; showing, in one year, an increase of nearly nine per cent.[2] It is astonishing, even to the colonists, when they now and again think about the matter, to find the change that two or three years have made in their several districts. Taking, as an example, our own country side, we find, within a year or two, several new homesteads to have been

[2] See Appendix, Table I.

erected, and many thousands of pounds of fresh capital to have been imported; the latter necessitating the employment of more labour, and increasing by a considerable amount the volume of local trade.

The indebtedness of the colony has often been contrasted with the smallness of its population. This is a point which requires some explanation. The smallness of the population is partly neutralized by the great producing power of the individual, partly by the employment of labour-saving machinery; partly by the character of the soil; and partly by the small number of hands required for pastoral purposes. In a letter written from home, towards the end of the harvest of 1881, the remark was made that it was sad to see but two old men reaping a large wheat-field, and that, as a consequence, bad weather had set in before the crop was secured. Two old men could hardly do more between them than one and a half acres per diem. Nothing of the kind is to be found in New Zealand. One man with a reaper and binder will cut and tie ten acres a day, whilst a second can follow the machine and stook all that has been cut. Supposing fine weather to prevail for a week, it would cost, for actual labour, but little over 1*s.* 6*d.* per acre to cut, tie, and stook. True, there would be other expenses, such as twine, horse-feed, and wear and tear, but we are considering now simply the producing power of the individual. We have before alluded to the amount of land which can be gone over with a double-furrow plough, three horses, and a single hand, in the course of a day's work, and have put it at from two to two and a half or three acres a day, according to circumstances. On the station a flock of 40,000 sheep will require about four shepherds with two or three station hands during the

greater part of the year. Labour, when mustering, shearing, and on certain other occasions, is economized by two or three stations employing the same "crowd" of casual hands in a pre-arranged rotation. Roads are formed by a heavy single-furrow plough, after which the loose stuff thrown up is carted away by the horse scoop. Cuttings are opened out, tier after tier, by the same kind of plough. In short, wherever practicable, purely unaided manual labour is only employed when and where it is absolutely necessary. Fences are erected, hedges cut, and all other odd jobs done by contract, the contractor passing from one farm to another as his contract with the farmer is completed. All this tends to economize the cost of production, and increase the producing power of the individual, in a manner unknown on farms at home, at least in former years, and barely equalled even in the case of large contractors. Probably it is necessity which has made the practice of contract work very prevalent in the colony. When it is remembered that an acre of wheat will readily produce thirty bushels, and that 40,000 sheep will easily give 240,000 lbs. of wool, besides an annual increase of stock, it becomes sufficiently evident that but few hands are required to raise a large amount of produce.

In the financial history of the colony one fact is very remarkable. We allude to the large sums of money arriving from the old country for the purpose of investment, whether in mortgages, or the purchase of real estate. Many properties are held by residents at home, and are either let on a lease, or worked through a partner or agent residing in the country. It may be that the rate of interest obtainable has been an inducement to those who have money to lend, but this will not explain the fact of so many absentees becoming

landed proprietors. Looking at the mattter from whatever point we will, it seems clear that many people have an idea that investments in landed estate in New Zealand are safe, and calculate on such an increase in their value as to cause the investors, in process of time, to become wealthy proprietors. The possibility of this in the near future is not so improbable as might at first sight appear. The world is more thickly peopled, and advances by far more rapid steps than it did one hundred years ago, and the time is arrived when crowded centres must get rid of their surplus population. For a few years the development of railways, telegraphs, and other internal improvements, has delayed, but cannot eventually prevent, an exodus. The colonies must, by degrees, become the home of a powerful people. For the moment it is true that there are in New Zealand comparatively large tracts of good land in second hands open for purchase. But each year the quantity is becoming less, and while this condition lasts land cannot rise beyond a certain value. But to-day, and on the basis of the prices mentioned in a former chapter, land can and does hold its own. Owners feel that if they cannot, in all cases, sell immediately; they will, with a little patience, secure the price on which they have based their calculations. In the meantime the land is for the most part productive, and as the quantity for sale diminishes prices must inevitably rise.

New Zealand cannot be compared to great and vaster continents. It is but a small country, and its area only that of the British Isles. The good land offering is small in quantity, when compared with the larger tracts of North America or Australia. When therefore it is said that much land is for sale, we must be understood only to speak comparatively. A few

more years will probably greatly change the aspect of affairs.

The colony has at length reached that stage in its development when further growth will become ten times more rapid than in the past. A few white men were previously scattered here and there over the islands, but it was only in the year 1839 that Colonel Wakefield, as representing the old New Zealand Company, made the first purchase of land from the natives. It was in 1850 that the pioneer ships left the London Docks for the Canterbury Plains. When we contemplate the prospects then and now; when we compare the severe struggles of the past with the absolute security and assurance of the present; when we look back at the man working hard to secure a patch of potatoes for his very sustenance, and content to live in a rude mud whare; when we remember that then a system of barter constituted the practical currency, and that cent. per cent. was charged for ordinary necessaries,—we shall, having considered all this, be in a better position to estimate the changes of the past few years. Instead of barter, we find numerous banks, carrying on an extensive business in large and handsome edifices, and supplying a currency based upon a well established credit. Instead of a struggle to secure the valuable potato patch, we find potatoes at a discount, and at times almost unsalable. Instead of the first settler's rude whare, we find, from north to south, good houses costing from their hundreds to their thousands, —and all this has been, for the most part, the work of the last twenty years. During the first period of its existence it taxed the utmost efforts of the colony to struggle on at all. Such being the case, it seems probable that during the next ten years so great an advance

will be made in the general prosperity as almost to be beyond the conception of the colonists themselves, and most certainly of those who judge new countries by old.

A good deal has been written about the heavy taxation to which the colonist in New Zealand is subjected. We do not believe he is taxed so heavily as the farmer at home. When tithes, poor rates, improvement rates, county rates, education rates, and, in many instances, sanitary rates, are added up, the whole will amount to a considerable percentage on the net income of an Old Country farmer; but, as a set off, he pays no indirect taxes, except on such beer, spirits, and tobacco, as he may consume. In New Zealand, on the contrary, most of the taxes are indirect, and collected on groceries, clothing, and other articles of consumption, most of which may be considered necessaries. Direct taxation is limited to an occasional country rate, and a property tax, amounting to about $1\frac{1}{4}d.$ in the pound, on the actual property which a man possesses. We say actual property, because all debts, including mortgages, are exempt from the tax, so far as he is concerned. Nor does he pay on actual property until such property exceeds a value of 500*l.* In other words, property owners of 500*l.* and under are exempt from the tax. This clause of the Act has been framed somewhat after that of the income tax at home, which exempts persons possessing less than a certain income, and by so doing gives encouragement to the small capitalist. But although the property tax in New Zealand exempts the mortgagor, the mortgagee is liable. This seems to be but fair. When persons lend money to the government of a colony or foreign state on the condition that they are to receive a fixed interest on what they lend, any deduction in the form of taxa-

tion afterwards made by such colony or state is manifestly a breach of contract. But when absentees of their free will invest moneys privately on the security of land or other property in a colony or foreign country, and receive from such investments an annual income earned for them by workers in such colony or country, they are clearly liable for their share of the taxation which may be imposed upon the resident property owners. In the case of New Zealand, absentee capitalists have had, no doubt, to pay a considerable share of the property tax, and to some extent have lightened the burden which, under different circumstances, would have been thrown upon the working colonist. The amount outstanding secured by mortgages stood on the 31st March, 1881 at 15,837,823*l.*; and on the 30th June, in the same year, the advances granted by the New Zealand banks amounted to 12,254,616*l.* What proportion of these mortgages, or of the capital and deposits belonging to the banks, form the property of colonists, it is difficult to determine. But there are many wealthy persons in New Zealand, and the amount must be far from inconsiderable. It is a good omen for the future development of the colony that the mortgages and advances together only amount to 28,000,000*l.* on a capital value of 74,000,000*l.* In addition, it is a well-known fact that for the purposes of assessment property is not taken at its real value, but at a considerable discount below what could be obtained for it in the market. That a considerable amount of the capital invested in mortgages, and in the hands of the banks, belongs to the colonists, may be inferred from the fact that the balance in the Post Office Savings Banks standing to the credit of small depositors, was, on the 31st March, 1882, 1,316,819*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.*

The property tax is not more unpopular in the colony than is the income tax at home, or in fact than any tax must be. It is true that there has been a great political battle over the merits of a property as compared with a land tax. Sir George Grey, with a small following, would prefer to see a land tax, his object being to throw the whole weight of taxation upon the runholder and landed proprietor. This is evidently a most suicidal policy. Under the property tax, merchants, capitalists, the professions, and manufacturing industries, contribute towards the general expenditure. Under the land tax, they would be comparatively, and in some cases totally, exempt. It is to be hoped that no such harmful expedient may be resorted to, for the sake of the future of New Zealand. Even supposing that a land tax could be imposed instead of a property tax, for the purposes of depreciating the value of large properties, and replacing the present proprietors by smaller men, such a tax would weigh far more heavily on the latter than on the former. Supposing the natural order of things to be violently disturbed, and replaced by Sir George Grey's projected measure, the small proprietor would, in such an event, have ultimately to be relieved by the abandonment of the land tax, and the reimposition of the property tax. Far better to let matters remain as they are and take their course. Far better to let a natural disintegration, which may in many instances be observed, pursue its way, and the object sought will be attained almost imperceptibly. To force disintegration by a land tax would be unjust, and probably inoperative. To wait for the subdivision of properties through family and other necessities would be just and certain, although too slow a process to the mind of the late premier. History has always shown that extreme democrats work with minds so focussed on a given

hobby that all else must perish, provided only it survives. Extreme democrats become, through endeavouring to make all men adopt their theories, unconscious tyrants. Republics, such as those of Venice, and France in 1789, have produced as many and great tyrants as could be found under recognized despotisms. We have much to be thankful for that in New Zealand we live under a constitutional form of government, and that, whilst the sovereign power is vested in a governor appointed by the Queen, the ultimate control rests with the people itself.

It has frequently been stated that the condition of the colony is unsound, because for a series of years the imports have exceeded the exports. The same has been said of England. In her case the matter was taken up and argued upon, as a sign of decadence, by men who should have known better, but who sought to find reasons for a temporary depression in false premisses. She was importing too much, it was urged—too much, even when considering her vast wealth. Some trades were certainly depressed; many individuals were certainly ruined; but, in spite of all, Savings Bank deposits are increasing, towns are rapidly extending, banks pay good dividends, the merchant navy commands the ocean-going traffic of the world, and people continue to live luxuriously.

We remember once calling upon a German senator in Hamburg—a worthy man he was, but withal a little pompous; and we could see that on this occasion he was a little more pompous than usual. An article in the *Times* had appeared that morning, which we had fortunately read. In it the writer bewailed the decadence of English and the increasing prosperity of German merchants. Presently the senator asked whether we had seen the article. "Yes," was the reply. "What

do you think of it?" he asked. "Well," we answered, "it may be partly true; but we believe the English merchants to have become bankers, and to be now lending your people money to do the work which they did formerly." Our friend did not say much, but he looked things unutterable. We still think the surmise to have been correct; for what is England now, and what Germany?

But as to New Zealand. Taking the trade of the entire colony, we shall find that the imports exceed the exports, but to a much smaller extent than in the earlier days of settlement.[3] The difference would be still less were it not for the greatly increased consumption of products within the country itself. The question arises how is this debit balance met, as years roll on, without bringing the colonists into the bankruptcy court? In England the excess of imports is more than compensated for by the interest on property invested without the kingdom, and the profits of the carrying trader. In New Zealand it is more than counterbalanced by new capital imported into the country. Part of this is represented by money introduced by new settlers, part by fresh funds seeking investment in mortgages or otherwise, and part by profits on produce exported. Were this not the case our people would become each year more deeply involved, and ultimately find ruin staring them in the face. The resources of a new country can only be developed by importations of men and capital. The capability of New Zealand to support its present indebtedness is well known to men living in the country. The present fear is lest money should become too abundant, and, by being so, pave the way for future complications and a further large extension of the public works system. But the colony in any case will be

[3] See Appendix, Table C.

eventually benefited by all sums spent in public works and agricultural improvements.

We would conclude this chapter by quoting the words of the President[4] of the Canterbury Chamber of Commerce, taken from an address delivered at the annual general meeting, held in Christchurch on 25th August, 1881, words which must speak to the understanding and command the approval of all thinking men. He says,—

"The steady, continuous advancement of this colony, possessed of such a climate and such a soil, if left unretarded by the devices of self-seeking and spendthrift politicians, each eager to obtain for his own petty locality a portion of the wealth out of the Treasury, regardless of the welfare of the State, cannot be doubted.

"Finance is the key to the position, and should any Government obtain power that neglects this in the slightest degree, the results to the credit of the colony must be serious.

"Increased population is one of our chiefest wants, and our aim and object must be to obtain a fair proportion of that mighty stream of voluntary emigrants, possessed of some resources, that is daily setting to the shores of North America. Why should they not come? Our climate is less severe, our lands equally waiting for the plough, and facilities abound for carriage and shipment of products, added to which no alien flag demands allegiance. The Australasian colonies, possessing an area of 3,103,903 square miles, with a population already amounting to over 2,700,000, and a total trade of imports and exports aggregating one hundred millions sterling, must in the early future be destined to play an important part in the history of the British Empire and of the world."

[4] A. Cracroft Wilson, Esq.

CHAPTER XI.

THE CHRISTCHURCH INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF 1882.

We shall presently have to consider the mineral resources and local industries now existing in the colony; but before doing so, it may be as well to make some mention of the International Exhibition held in Christchurch in the year A.D. 1882. Those of us who can remember the "Great Exhibition" of 1851, as contained within its crystal walls, cannot but feel that, itself the first of all international competitions, it has been the parent of many children—the pioneer of much good to many people; and that it embodied a vast idea, the influence of which has been felt even to the threshold of the future. There have been many exhibitions since that of 1851. Paris twice, Vienna once, and London yet again, have each tried to emulate it. The United States have had their Philadelphia. At the Antipodes, Sydney and Melbourne have followed suit, although maybe at a distance. But the Great Exhibition of 1851 stands pre-eminent above all succeeding efforts—a first conception clothed in royal robes. Subsequent exhibitions may have done as much for their several generations, but they have been of the earth earthy. They have been as distinctive in character from their great predecessor as is the modern copy to the work of the mediæval master. As in the copy original feeling is lost, so in all later exhibitions

the pure poetry and genius of the World's Great Fair of 1851, are made manifest by their absence.

To prove that this is so, picture we ourselves once more in Hyde Park, approaching for the first time that palace of glass, the creation of a most happy thought: the bustle and animation without; the sense almost of bewilderment and expectancy as we passed the doors; the scene which met our gaze on entering the noble transept—the lofty trees incased in their daylight prison, the great fountain throwing aloft its sparkling jet but to descend in almost impalpable spray; and as we moved slowly onwards and stood beneath the very centre of the dome—to right to left, behind, before, whichever way we turned, was seen a vista containing throughout its very length the greatest treasures that men or earth could then produce, the first fruits of every land—a willing tribute to that universal peace and goodwill amongst men which was expected to be the result of the building in which we stood. In this idea rested the real poetry of the Exhibition of 1851—an idea to be dispelled, alas, how soon! Within but a few short months, hundreds and thousands of our countrymen were to fall in a protracted war, the victims of a still untamed and degenerate barbarism. Cut down by the sharp pruning-knife of experience, such illusions could never again be felt. On future occasions it was not expected to find a fairyland or New Utopia. All that was ventured was to emulate the past, in so far as that could be done. Henceforth the real good to be accomplished was confined to a use of opportunity, and the promotion, by practical comparison, of a solid advancement in different countries or in individual trades.

Wars and rumours of wars might come and go; over these it was conceded that international exhibitions could

exercise no immediate or sensible control. We had descended from the age of gold to that of iron—from the more poetic and beautiful to the more practical and utilitarian. We never have seen, most probably we never shall see, a second Crystal Palace; and yet we may have visited exhibitions fully as instructive, and showing, by the articles they contained, a great advance in the walks both of science and mechanics. It would almost seem as if the very architects acknowledged this, and designed all future buildings to meet the more prosaic wants of after-generations.

Who that visited Hyde Park in 1851, but has exclaimed on entering any subsequent building, "This may be very grand, very wonderful, very beautiful, but it is not the fairyland of our younger days." The poetry then may have vanished, but the utility remains. And this word utility means great things; it means the better education of the masses, the advancement of art, science, and mechanics; it means a step forward in the march of progress. It is not the shell of the fruit which possesses the real value, but the kernel which the shell contains It does not follow that because one building may not be so pleasing to the eye, or so captivating to the senses, as another, the former does not afford as much food for instruction as the latter. Possibly it may afford more.

Again, it does not follow that because a country possesses not a London, Paris, or Vienna, it should not endeavour to educate its people according to its ability. If it cannot exhibit the masterpieces of a Raphael, a Correggio, or a Murillo; if it cannot show the rich textures of Lyons, or produce the far-famed china of Sèvres or Dresden, it may, by doing what it can, help to improve the past, give encouragement for the

future, and excite in the breasts of its people an otherwise latent endeavour to excel.

Such is the light in which the Exhibition in Christchurch should be regarded. It is an exhibition that affords an opportunity of spending hours in a study of the interesting matter which it contains, and enables the student to come away a wiser, and therefore a better man. To those who have visited the building for this purpose, how harshly must it grate upon the nerves to find people, with heads as empty as the handles of their own umbrellas, affirm the whole to be a failure, and assert that it contains nothing worth seeing. But human nature always runs in the same grooves, and the thoughtful mind is everywhere liable to encounter a similar opposition to its deeper and self-formulated convictions. We may, perhaps, have been studying one or two grand pictures in the Academy, on the consideration of which the better part of a morning was well bestowed. A few hours later some prattling miss, fresh from "Laburnum House," informs us that there are no good pictures in the Academy this year; that, as a whole, it cannot be compared to the Exhibition of the previous season, and, in short, that art in Great Britain is in a state of rapid decline. Or maybe we are in Rome, in some artist's studio, and have just laid down our pipe in deference to the all-powerful "forestieri." These visits always amused, as seated in a shady corner we sat and watched. The helpless condition of the intruders as to what to condemn and what to admire, when called upon to express an opinion in a real artistic den, was often ludicrous. We believe that if Mr. Val Prinsep's picture of the swine tumbling over the cliff, one after the other, into the Sea of Galilee, had been placed before them, they would at such a moment have compared it to the "Trans-

figuration," or the "Death of Peter Martyr." Perhaps some lady with more presence of mind than the rest would exclaim, "How beautifully you paint grass, Mr. Dash. I never can make it look like that." To whom the artist, "Perhaps, madam, you have not studied grass so much as I have." What a relief, *post hoc*, to visit dear old Gibson, as, seated on the ever-ready chair before his cherished Venus, he murmurs to himself, "Sometimes I think thou art an angel sent from heaven to visit me." Of a surety there must be a foundation for the legend of Pygmalion and Galatea; the key to which has been caught by Mrs. Kendal, and gave a cue for that agonizing cry, uttered when, as Galatea, she was about to separate from her creator—a cry twice heard long years ago, but the echo of which is ringing in our brain to-day.

The entire success of the Christchurch Exhibition is due to the private enterprise of two gentlemen, Messrs. Joubert and Twopenny. Most colonial exhibitions, when undertaken by the authorities have left an alarming deficit. Even in the Old World success has not always accompanied the best efforts of government, while at the Antipodes the Sydney and Melbourne Exhibitions left a deficit of upwards of a quarter of a million sterling. But Messrs. Joubert and Twopenny have proved themselves to be wise men in their generation. They have so managed that any loss shall fall upon the exhibitors, and not upon the promoters. They have made themselves safe in a way which no government could have done, namely, by making the success or failure of the enterprise a matter between the exhibitor and the public. They said to the producer, "We will give you facilities for placing your goods before the people of New Zealand; for this you must pay us so much; whether you can afford

to do so or not rests with yourselves, and the result will depend entirely upon what you can make out of the public. You may exhibit what you please, but first you must pay down 20*l.* for your stand, with a weekly rent of 50*s.*, payable in advance." Beyond the monies received from the exhibitors, the goodwill of the refreshment-stalls, cloak-room, catalogue, and other methods of turning an honest penny, have been sold at public auction. Messrs. Joubert and Twopenny receive the gate-money, out of which they have to pay all current expenses. We had almost forgotten to mention that the gas collector calls every week at the several stalls, to receive from each its quota of the cost of lighting the building. The promoters' private bill on this account must consequently be reduced to a minimum.

It is difficult not to admire the thoroughly good business qualifications of Messrs. Joubert and Twopenny, and from personal experience we can state that they are both most gentlemanly persons. Without their assistance it is certain that we should not have held an "International Exhibition" in New Zealand in the year 1882. What share of the costs should be borne by the promoters, and what by the exhibitors, is entirely a matter for mutual arrangement; nor is it probable that the latter will be induced to contribute more than they think consistent with their individual interests. Practically the matter comes to this, that the promoters have inaugurated a new system for competitive exhibitions, and we believe that the grounds on which they have proceeded, will prove to be based on sound and co-operative principles. In New Zealand, at any rate, they have provided for the country, at a considerable monetary risk, and certainly at some anxiety to themselves, as good an exhibition as could have been organized by government itself, and that without

any fear of a deficit to the colony. We cannot believe that their energies will be confined to what they have already accomplished, but that when their present work is done, they will be heard of elsewhere. Messrs. Joubert and Twopenny could not have done what they have without a large practical experience, and it would be folly for those not initiated in the secrets of great exhibitions to attempt to follow in their footsteps.

Mr. Joubert, the son of an officer in the French Navy, was born in Charente, France, in 1824. After graduating in the College Royal Bourbon, at Paris, he commenced life on board the French frigate *Heroine*. Having experienced many adventures and turns of fortune, he arrived in Sydney in 1841, and three years afterwards was appointed Chancellor to the French Consulate. Upon the fall of the Orleans Dynasty, in 1848, Mr. Joubert once more commenced a life of adventure, until in 1867 he was appointed secretary of the Agricultural Society of New South Wales. Whilst in this capacity he became the initiator of Industrial Exhibitions in Australia. His success in this line led him to suggest a permanent Intercolonial Exhibition Building in Sydney, which was afterwards erected at a cost of about 27,000*l*. He was employed as secretary of the Royal Commission at the last Paris Exhibition, and the experience which he gained in Europe enabled him to be of great assistance to, and tended to the success of, the Sydney and Melbourne Exhibitions. He afterwards, in conjunction with Mr. Twopenny, organized, as a private enterprise, the Adelaide and Perth Exhibitions. Lastly, we find him in Christchurch, decorated with the red ribbon of the Legion of Honour, and looking in his neat frock-coat as if fresh from the Paris Boulevards.

Mr. Twopenny is an Englishman, and son of the rector

of Little Casterton, in Rutlandshire, where he was born in August, 1857. He was educated in France, at Marlborough, and at Heidelberg, and can consequently speak with the greatest fluency both English, French, and German. Going to Australia in 1876, he was in 1877 appointed secretary to the South Australian Commission at the Paris Exhibition. In 1879 he was secretary to the same Government at the Sydney and Melbourne Exhibitions, and in 1881 joined Mr. Joubert in his scheme of instituting an Exhibition in Adelaide. With this gentleman he has been connected until the present time.

Placed in such hands, it was not likely that the Christchurch Exhibition would prove a failure. Nor has it been so, although Messrs. Joubert and Twopenny met with a certain amount of opposition before they could carry out their intended enterprise. There exists in Christchurch a society called the "Industrial Association," formed for the purpose of protecting and watching over the interests of native industries. A certain number of its members were averse to any Exhibition being held which should include the manufacturing products of other countries. They appear to have feared lest such an encouragement to foreign producers should clash with their individual interests, and divert some of the coin which by rights ought to flow into the tills of members of the association, towards the pockets of foreign rivals. Fortunately all were not thus minded, and the co-operation of the society was ultimately secured. That such ideas should, for one moment, have been entertained, proves the great advantage which the public was likely to derive from the efforts of the promoters, and the narrow escape which it had from a species of trades unionism in high quarters. The sooner such false impressions are dissipated, the better for the country in which they exist. Competition in

trade tends to stimulate the inventive energies of the producer, to show him new paths in which to tread, and create a wider demand for the productions of his skill. Producer and consumer alike must clearly be benefited by a well-regulated competition.

After various sites had been considered, the building was finally erected in Hagley Park, the best situation, under any circumstances, in which it could have been placed. It takes the form of a large parallelogram, being 668 feet in length, by 288 feet in breadth. The main building is carried round the four sides, and extends from the outside wall to a depth of 45 feet inwards. Each of the corners is finished by an octagon of handsome dimensions, rising considerably higher than the rest of the structure. A transept 96 feet wide, and of considerable pretensions, divides the building into two parts. At one end of this is the main entrance, whilst the other is finished by a most delightful fernery, with limpid water trickling over a well-formed rockery. The exhibits in the interior of the building are confined within bays fifteen feet deep, but of various breadths, according to the requirements of the exhibitors. These are placed on either side of the main avenues, leaving a passage way in the centre fully fifteen feet broad. In the centre of the octagons are placed handsome trophies, their walls being covered with various exhibits. The transept contains the art-gallery and concert-room, the one separated from the other by a party-wall, through which doors are pierced for better communication on special occasions. In the concert-room an Austrian band plays twice during the day, and numerous chairs afford a pleasant lounge to visitors wearied with the fatigue of continuous sight-seeing. That part of the building which has the greatest architectural effect is the Italian façade, ornamented with several

statues, which fronts the visitor when first entering the building, and which serves as a screen to separate the art gallery from the rest of the Exhibition. Between the entrance and the façade a pleasant fountain breaks the line of sight. The unroofed and central portion of the enclosure consists of two large quadrangles surrounded by sheds containing the machinery exhibits. The entire structure is composed of a framework of wood, covered over all with corrugated iron. Considering the material which the architect had at his disposal, the effect of the exterior, and especially of the main front, is as pleasing as could be expected, whilst throughout the interior most of the exhibitors have so draped or fitted up their bays as to leave but little of the bare walls exposed to view. The total cost of the structure was about 11,000*l.*, the promoters supplying all the material. Perhaps the most remarkable fact connected with its construction, was that the main transept, 323 feet long, 96 feet wide, and 26 feet to the wall-plates, was erected in a substantial and satisfactory manner in the wonderfully short space of forty-eight working hours. Such expedition reflects credit on the promoters, architect, contractor, and the many workmen who were employed.

To add to the ordinary attractions, prizes have been given for band contests, chamber music, and choral performances held in the large concert-room. So far these entertainments have drawn exceedingly well, and seem to be received with favour by the public.

The building was formally opened on the 10th April, by his Excellency Sir Arthur Gordon, and although at that date it presented a somewhat unfinished appearance, owing to the dilatoriness of some of the exhibitors, everything has since been placed in position, and the interior now looks at its best. If it cannot for one moment stand

comparison with the larger and more comprehensive efforts of older countries, it is in its own sphere equally wonderful. Wonderful for this reason, that, on the spot where thirty-two years ago could be seen nothing but plains of tussuck, is now standing a building, situated in a fair-sized city, and containing within its walls a collection of articles to produce which the genius and labour of many lands and many generations have been exercised. And if in these and the following remarks we appear to dwell a small space too long, we do so because a knowledge of what is produced in the colony, and of what is offered to it by the outside world, will give the best insight into the present condition of the country. If such a knowledge can be conveyed, it will materially assist the object for which the present work has been undertaken.

Perhaps it will be found more convenient to separate the contents of the Exhibition into two classes—the first comprising those articles which are of foreign manufacture; the second confined exclusively to the products and manufactures of the colony.

Taking these two classes in the order which we have indicated, the fine-art gallery, occupying the central portion of the transept, may be dismissed in a few words. The room in which the pictures are hung is large and well lighted. It is tastefully decorated, and reflects great credit upon the architect. But the works exhibited, are decidedly second-rate. A few fair pictures are scattered here and there amongst the numbers which line the walls, but the bulk are of hasty execution, and suggest an idea that they have been painted for sale, rather than from a love of art or to foster the painter's reputation. The collector has evidently endeavoured to meet the tastes of all parties. As the bookshelves of the *nouveau riche* may

be furnished in calf-bound octavoes at so much per yard, so can our walls in New Zealand be covered from this Exhibition at so much per square foot. Tastes may vary, but so does the choice presented to them. We can see "Ephraim's wife," in the shape of a beautiful female stretched at length upon the ground, and in the most pathetic of attitudes, her head upon a cold grey stone, one of her extremities by some means entangled in the meshes of a black lace mantilla, and her entire figure guiltless of all clothing save that by which she was so lavishly endowed by—nature. This painting represents the French school. We can once more visit the coast of Holland, and look upon the sea-tossed brown-sailed fishing-boats seeking, in the most impossible of waves, the ever-welcome port. We can tread the pier at Boulogne, and meet the newly married pair; she clad in the most unwrinkled of bridal costumes, heightened by the tender *nuance* of lemon-coloured kids; he, as if fresh from one of the lay figures exhibited in the spacious windows of Messrs. Moses. We may cool our feet with the cattle in the gently rippling stream and stagnant pond; or, if it so please us, refresh our memory in matters of mediæval armour and continental architecture. We have storm; we have sunshine; we have interiors and exteriors; we have the lady emerging from her bath, and the cavalier arrayed in the full war-paint of buff jerkin and shining breastplate. But having all this, we feel that something is wanting. Is it that one touch of nature which makes the whole world kin? Or is it the absence of the Italian "pifferari," or the scarlet-bodiced peasant girl of Alvano and Giotto Ferrato? Who can tell? We have our canvases encircled by their richly gilt frames, yet in spite of all we feel inclined to say, "Go to, Mr. Collector, look lest we inquire the school in which you have attained

your knowledge. We doubt thou hast never visited the Café Greco, or been acquainted with that much regretted 'censore,' and late uncle of ours, il Signore Buco."

One of the great features of the Exhibition is the good display of china and glass. The stalls of the Worcester Royal Porcelain Company, of Messrs. Wedgwood, and Thomas Webb and Sons, of Stourbridge, together with those of several exhibitors from Bohemia, offer an opportunity to the most fastidious of acquiring a few of those elegancies which so greatly add to the refinements of a home.

Still keeping to the ornamental, the Japanese court is one of great merit. It is seldom that a superior collection of articles from that country is anywhere exhibited. Commencing with some large and handsome bronzes, it passes through the usual array of ebony cabinets, papier-maché trays, fans, Kiôto vases, and such like knick-knacks, to a few splendid specimens of real Satsuma ware. France, Italy, Switzerland, and Turkey, although present in name, are practically unrepresented. Certain courts are alloted to them to assure to the Exhibition its suppositive international character. But these courts are, for the most part, occupied by stalls apparently the property of Jew peddlers on a large scale, whose wares do not rise above those to be seen in the bazaar of many a seaside watering-place at home. Money across the counter, rather than *bonâ-fide* competition, is here the order of the day. Pity it should be so, but New Zealand is evidently as yet a *terra incognita* to the gay Parisian, or the respectable Italian trader. The vendors at these stalls are somewhat importunate, and were better relegated to that portion of the building reserved for what is called somewhat grandiloquently, the "World's Fair." It is well known that tradespeople can only be induced to

exhibit their wares by a hope of increasing their business connexions. But there is a legitimate and illegitimate method of promoting this object. The one by being civilly attentive, and explaining to those interested in the merits of their respective exhibits, the other by annoying the passing visitor, with their pressing assiduities. When the stranger enters the so-called "World's Fair," he does so at his own risk, knowing what may be expected; but it is a trifle too bad to be pestered by Cheap Jacks in the foreign courts of the Exhibition proper. Fortunately this malpractice is limited to a few stalls, and perhaps we ought to be grateful that the nuisance is no worse.

The Cheap Jacks are ofttimes very amusing fellows. If you can get them on the quiet, they can tell of many an amusing experience. It has frequently been said, that the ignorant disbelieve in the efficacy of any medicine which is not pungently nauseous, and we have heard it whispered that many a *nouveau riche* despises that which does not cost him dear; but to refuse to purchase at three and sixpence, and elect instead to become the happy owner of the self-same article at fifteen and six, is a wrong-headedness which it is still more difficult to comprehend; yet it has been done. A respectable-looking female lingered one afternoon at the stall of a somewhat acute vendor of American notions. "Madam," he says, "what can I do for you? Would you like to take home to your little girl one of these handsome silver bracelets, which, as you can see, will fit a wrist of any dimensions? Look, madam, with what ease I can place it round my own—so, or, if you will allow me, you will find it equally comfortable on your own. But, perhaps, I may offer you one of these gold necklaces, with the handsome locket attached, and the price, madam, is really ridiculously cheap, only fifteen and sixpence; quite a bargain

madam, I assure you." But madam does not respond; she is evidently not certain of her position. Fearing to be had, she slowly moves to the next stall. Over this a Turkish woman presides, jealous of the patter and greater success of her Yankee neighbour. "How much for that locket and chain?" comes the question. Now is the opportunity to outdo her foe and secure a customer. "Three and sixpence," she replies. But, alas, she has bid too low. At three and six, argues our good lady, it can only be imitation. I had better buy the genuine article at fifteen and six; and she does so. Moral—only rate yourself high enough, and you will generally be taken at your own valuation.

Practically the real interest of the Exhibition centres around the British, American, and New Zealand courts. In these we can find what Great Britain and America can do for New Zealand, and what she can do for herself. All other exhibits are beside the question, and may be looked upon as accidentals and of a secondary importance. In the main building we see calicoes, guns, screws, castings, gas fittings, sewing machines, pianos, harmoniums, American organs, candle and sugar trophies, circular saws, iron-piping, beer and wines, Crossley's and other carpets, and many exhibits of a similar nature, all interesting in themselves, but too well-known, as to their general characteristics, to need any separate or detailed mention. We allude to them for the sole purpose of giving a general idea of what is offered to the colony. But there are some articles so interesting in themselves, and such salient features of the Exhibition, as to demand more particular notice, and it must be gratifying to the exhibitors to know that most of the articles in the British court are so well appreciated as to have been already sold, either to the trade or private persons.

Amongst the exhibits which commend themselves as being most suitable for colonial requirements, the first which arrests our attention, from its proximity to the main entrance, is a model of Messrs. Priestman Brothers' patent dredger. This is a simple crane dredger, revolving on a pivot, carrying its own motive power, and capable of being worked from railway metals, barge, or pontoon. One of these machines, costing 500*l.*, is capable of lifting, under favourable circumstances, in a working day of ten hours, 500 tons of mud or 300 tons of clay, the lift being twenty feet from the ground level. In new countries, where numerous works requiring a dredger of some sort are being carried out, the advantages of this cheap and effective machine must be apparent. It is to be found working in England, India, China, New Zealand, Tasmania, and in short throughout the world.

Opposite may be seen two of the most interesting objects of the Exhibition—a loom from the Kaiapoi Woollen Company's factory and a fine band-sawing machine. The mechanic attached to the latter cuts, from small square blocks of wood, the most ingenious little chairs, tables, and foot-stools, which can be refitted into the original cubes, and when placed in small cardboard boxes may be purchased at the cost of one shilling —a slight memento of the ingenuity of man. This machine must be especially useful to cabinet-makers and fretwork carvers. Hard by can be seen two specimens of the Otto silent gas-engine, working so smoothly as almost to escape notice. Seven thousand of these engines have been already sold, and they have become almost a necessity to those who have need of occasional power, and are fortunate enough to be situated within easy access of gas. There is yet another engine which makes

its own gas, but it has hitherto proved refractory, and some of us, whilst endeavouring to help its somewhat bewildered exhibitor, were almost blown into space by a sudden ignition of the gas. Since then we became more reserved in our offers of voluntary assistance, and looked upon the still vain efforts of our friend from a somewhat safer distance. One of the most attractive exhibits from the old country is that shown by Messrs. B. Parkes and Sons, of Dudley. Their display of fenders, both good and artistic, is said to be the largest ever shown by one firm at any international exhibition. The collection occupies nearly four bays, and is placed on a low platform covered with scarlet cloth. It includes specimens of the humblest styles and of the most elaborate Gothic. We can safely affirm that such a display would do honour to any country, and are glad to learn that the whole collection has been sold to an enterprising tradesman, who will, we trust, make some profit out of the transaction. In any case, New Zealand will retain articles of great merit, and their possession cannot but improve the public taste. But we must hurry on for fear of being induced to spend beyond our means, and seek by concentrating our energies upon the Griswold stocking-knitter to efface the memory of a display all too tempting for our artistic temperament. Of these machines, two are in operation, and the supreme command is vested in a pleasant-featured, quiet little woman fresh from London, and come out under engagement to a Dunedin firm. Her duties will be to instruct young girls in the management of the machine. She informed us that a girl can turn out from ten to twelve pairs of socks a day, and the instrument will produce stockings made from the coarsest wool or the finest silk. The stockings made by this machine are often palmed off upon

the uninitiated in shops at home as the best hand-knitted.

Turning into the open quadrangles, we are met by almost every conceivable variety of implements which can be of use in the colony. We have force-pumps, bucket-pumps, and an ingenious hot-air pump, all in practical work. The latter is a simple contrivance, consisting of two cylinders, under one of which is a small furnace to generate the necessary heat. The atmospheric expansion thus obtained is assisted by working against a vacuum in the other cylinder. The machine, once started, may be left for hours to work alone. Making 140 revolutions per minute, it pumps and discharges 300 gallons per hour. The consumption of fuel is extremely small, and any chance of explosion impossible, there being no valves or boiler. The same engine will drive a chaff-cutter, or blow the bellows of a church organ. As a motive power, it is simplicity itself. Over 1800 have already been sold. There is, too, a large assortment of lathes, morticing machinery, and steam engines; whilst American churns, potato-planting machines, labour-saving saws, and other Yankee notions, are well represented.

But the greatest display is, as might be expected, in agricultural implements. Messrs. Robey, Ruston, Proctor, Marshall, and Hornsby all exhibit; Clayton and Shuttleworth being, for some reason, conspicuous by their absence. The American firms of McCormick, Wood, Osborne, and the Johnston Harvester Co. send reapers and binders, in addition to those of Messrs. Howard and Aultmann. In drills we have the American Champion, McSherry, Farmer's Friend, and Monarch. Gang ploughs, sulky ploughs, disk harrows, and steel and tripod harrows, present an endless variety from which to select,

while a couple of traction engines by Messrs. Fowler perambulate the yards, thoroughly masters of the situation.

We have already said enough to give an idea of the general features of the Exhibition, so far at least as they represent imported articles. The above slight sketch will enable the reader to understand that life in the colonies has already begun to reflect those higher social refinements and that improved science which have of late made such important strides in the old world. To write about and read about such matters may be somewhat dry work, but there is no royal road to wisdom. "All work and no play," it is said, "makes Jack a dull boy." But all play and no work must make Jack a still duller boy. Perhaps for the moment we have done work enough, and may fairly listen for a few short minutes to the sweet strains of the Austrian band. We do not know what the general verdict might be, but of all the military music, we used to like the band of Austria the best. One of the greatest treats which ever threw itself unexpectedly across our path, occurred one day at Prague, when chance conducted us to where a military stringed band was playing before the windows of the ex-Emperor Joseph. The military music of Austria seems to have a sparkling brilliancy unknown to the more ponderous bands of Northern Germany; a sweetness which leaves behind the famous Guides of France; a pathos foreign to the more vibrating strains of sunny Italy; a unison of individual musicians producing inflections entirely impossible to ordinary regimental bands at home. We are speaking now of a certain class of music—of those sweet tones, which simply stir the senses but leave the soul untouched. Great pleasure may be found in the ballad, the stimulating march, or the merry valse, but it requires a Handel to stir the soul. Beethoven we enjoy,

with mind absorbed, when listening to the inimitable perfection of his thorough-bass. Mendelssohn we admire for his genius and intellectual power. But it is left to a Handel to exalt our very being beyond earth's turmoil, and translate us into a purifying heaven of his own creation. Who that has listened to the overpowering solos and almost glorious choruses of the "Messiah," but has gone home to feel the effects of a previous tension, and find in a past excitement the prelude to a depression more or less severe! But these were not our feelings when, taking a temporary respite from heavier work, we sat and listened to the Austrian band. As air followed air, we seemed to be once more in Venice, beneath the colonnade of the Piazza. The same old strains were falling sweetly on the ear. And then our thoughts seemed centred in an oft-frequented café. We remembered one evening when, hat in hand, we Englishmen proposed to the Austrian officers the health of the Kaiser and Kaiserinn, and that too in a bumper of red Vorslauer. Their fine old colonel next proposed the Queen and Prince of Wales. We remember the good-fellowship that succeeded, the many bottles which were emptied with the invariable "Aus," the "bull" dance accompanied by the strains of the regimental band, the unanimous call for the world-beloved Radetsky March. All this, and more than this, seemed vivid. Who can wonder that we asked the band to play their well-remembered favourite, or, that when they played, they played indeed! Then afterwards, in far New Zealand, with hats in hand and hearts well warmed, we clinked our glasses and drank once more to Kaiser and to Kaiserinn, to Queen and Prince.

You, our old friends, present that night in Venice, can, if you see this page, realize our feelings as the old march

was played; but you may notice that we are silent on the very point which always was disputed—that file of soldiers, said to have seen us safely home. We never did, nor do we yet, believe the fact. In any case, we were young boys together.

CHAPTER XII.

COLONIAL INDUSTRIES.

The Exhibition presents a good opportunity for seeing the industries of the colony brought together in a concentrated form, and enables the observer to grasp, with but little difficulty, the point which has been reached towards making the country self-supporting. Much, in this respect, remains to be done, but much has already been accomplished. The ice has been broken, and success following on success, gives fresh encouragement for more extended operations. It is doubtful whether the general public was, previously to the present Exhibition, alive to the variety and extent of the manufactures which are being carried on in its midst.

As we proceed, it will be found that New Zealand not only resembles Great Britain, by being composed of two chief islands, but that, like her prototype, she possesses large deposits of mineral wealth; that she is rich in the production of wool and grain; and exhibits all the essentials necessary to form the groundwork of a prosperous manufacturing community. It is satisfactory, too, to find that some of the manufactures, in which she already more particularly excels, are unprotected by the present tariff, a fact which goes far to prove that those trades which are protected, to the extent of about a 12½ per cent. ad valorem duty, would be in an equally

thriving condition were this protection to be removed. For the most part duties in this country have not been imposed for the purpose of protecting local interests, but from a necessity of providing for the revenue. Indeed, there is no reason why manufactures of a class suitable to the raw products of the colony should not be able to compete successfully with importations of similar goods from abroad. Coal is plentiful and of easy access, and wages are not so high as it is supposed. Persons of both sexes are to be found willing to work at trades which permit the enjoyment of a home, when they would be unwilling to submit to the necessary restraints of domestic service. We are fast coming to this, that if young people, born and educated in the country, be unwilling to enter domestic service, and for the most part leave it to Irish girls to furnish the supply, they must find some other source of employment. The shops cannot absorb them all, nor do they possess the necessary means for living a life of idleness. It would appear as if local industries would employ this fast-increasing surplus population, in proof of which the Kaiapoi Woollen Company are now advertising for another hundred hands, which, it is to be presumed, they will have little difficulty in obtaining.

If we cast a glance at the tariff, it will be found that the following goods, all more or less competing with local industries, are imported free of duty. Some on the list enter into direct competition with the local manufacturer; others will do so more as workshops multiply; others are but the raw material. We find, then, free—anvils, axles, carriage springs, carriage and cart shafts, spokes in the rough, churns, brass, copper, gas-pipes, iron, lead, machinery for agricultural purposes, paints wet or dry (but not mixed ready for use), ploughs, harrows, printing

machinery, railway plant, sewing machines, steel, timber, tin, artificers' tools, water-pipes, and many other goods of a similar character too numerous to mention. Many articles of consumption, such as bacon, cheese, butter, grain, maccaroni, olive oil in bulk, split peas, sago, and tapioca, are exempt from duty. Most other articles of importance pay an ad valorem duty of about 12½ per cent., with the exception of wines, spirits, and tobacco, which pay on a scale regulated according to quality and make up. From this it will be seen that the New Zealand tariff, although to some extent protective, is not violently so. Whilst its existence is necessary for the purpose of raising the ordinary revenue of the country, it protects the consumer from famine prices, should any deficiency arise from an over-exportation of articles of consumption, and it at the same time gives the manufacturer the power of importing, free of duty, the raw or half-made materials necessary for his trade. When the cheapness of colonial produce is taken into consideration, it barely, if at all, increases the cost of living when compared with an average of the prices paid for the same necessaries at home. Competition is being gradually developed, and each year witnesses a steady reduction in the cost of articles of consumption, while a similar competition is securing a permanent improvement in articles of production. The tendency of the normal value of money is certainly downwards, a most important point when considering the future prosperity of the colony. As a better communication is established with the old world, the value of money at home and in New Zealand will approximate more closely. When this becomes an accomplished fact, it must greatly assist local industries, and tend to the development of the hitherto barely investigated mineral resources of the country. At pre-

sent, although articles of consumption may be comparatively cheap, the colonists have to pay what would be considered at home a long price for a plough or a set of harrows. But implements such as these last for many years. Thus, if they get mutton at 2*d.* or 2½*d.* per lb., mutton, being an article of every-day consumption, goes far to counterbalance the higher price of a plough or harrows, which have to be replaced only on rare occasions.

New Zealand is essentially a wool-producing country, and it follows that, with coal at hand, one of the first textile industries to be initiated should be that of materials made from this product. Two principal woollen factories have, for some time, been in full working order; the one belonging to the Kaiapoi Woollen Manufacturing Company near Christchurch; the other to the New Zealand Clothing Factory of Mosgiel, near Dunedin. The success of these establishments has been so great that other companies are at the present moment being formed, but with what results time alone will show. Much will depend upon management, but the extra competition produced by their means will no doubt be of great advantage to the consumer. The articles manufactured are made from pure wool, and for the most part are confined to the best quality. Amongst them are to be found superfine black cloth, coatings, tweeds, frieze, overcoatings, serge, blankets, rugs, shawls, stockings, and fingering yarns. To each firm is attached a ready-made clothing department. The company at Mosgiel has recently made extensive additions to its factory, and rented another mill in order to meet the demands made upon its resources. The Kaiapoi Woollen Company has built a large warehouse in Christchurch for the sale of its piece goods, and for the manufacture of ready-made clothing. To describe the working of one of these factories will be

more or less to describe both, and give sufficient insight into the industry as it at present exists. The industrial prize given by Messrs. Joubert and Twopenny, has been awarded to the Kaiapoi Woollen Company: an award about which the *Canterbury Times* remarks, "There is not a single exhibitor in the building whose opinion is not in accord with the verdict of the judges in this matter, as the firm's exhibits are acknowledged by all to be thoroughly entitled to the reward they have so deservedly received." The public will fully endorse the opinion of the exhibitors and judges, and we are only too happy in being able to give a short *résumé* of a work which has been accomplished in so short a time. In 1878 the company bought the business from the Hon. J. I. Peacock, and was registered with a capital of 15,000*l.*, in fifteen shares of 1000*l.* each. In 1880 the company extended the number of its shareholders, and its capital to 100,000*l.*, represented by 4000 shares of 25*l.* each. In January, 1882, half the capital had been issued,[1] and, after paying nearly 30,000*l.* for additions to land, plant, and buildings, the profit and loss account, less depreciation, was sufficient to provide a dividend of 10 per cent., a balance of over 1200*l.* being carried to the new account. The factory is the most complete of its kind in the southern hemisphere, and it is expected that, in a short time, the machinery will be doubled. The space occupied by the mills embraces an area of about eleven acres. The main building, which consists of three stories, is 220 feet long by 180 feet wide, and contains the teasing and carding machines, and on another floor the spinning mules. Contiguous to it are three weaving sheds. At the west end of the main building are placed the engine-room, mill-

[1] Since the above was written the directors have issued the remaining shares for the purpose of still further developing the business.

ing-house, dye-house, drying-house, and finishers' room. There are various other buildings for storing and sorting wool, whilst close at hand is a sulphuring-house. The remaining buildings include private gas-works, manager's house, stables, carpenter's shop, and smithy. The fuel used is New Zealand coal from the Malvern Hills, and the engine is of colonial make. It was manufactured by Messrs. Scott Brothers, of Christchurch, being a horizontal compound stationary engine of sixty-horse power, fitted with condensing and double-acting air pumps, and making seventy revolutions per minute. The fly-wheel, which weighs five tons, has a diameter of twelve feet, and was cast in three portions. The high-pressure cylinder of fifteen inches, and the low-pressure of twenty-one inches, both having a thirty-six inch-stroke, are believed to be the largest pair ever cast in the colony. It would be tedious to follow the wool during the process of manufacture, or to describe what can be seen on a much larger scale at home. Our purpose is simply to show what is being done in the country. For this it will be sufficient to state that the machinery in use was manufactured by Petre and Leach of Brockdale, Platt of Oldham, Sykes and Sons, and other makers, affording a sufficient guarantee that it is of the best quality and most approved design.

A sick and accident benefit society is attached to the institution for the benefit of the work-people, the contributions to which range from twopence to sixpence per week, according to the circumstances and sex of the members. The hands employed in the factory number about 240; the works are connected with the warehouse in Christchurch by telephone.

In the town warehouse the staff consists of about 170 persons, with over fifty sewing machines, a staff now

about to be increased by the addition of 100 hands. When these are engaged the company will employ over 500 operatives.

One of the largest manufactures is that of leather and ready-made boots and shoes. So long ago as 1878 (and four years is long ago in a colony), 100 establishments existed, which were devoted to fellmongery, tanning, currying, and wool-scouring, together with eighteen boot manufactories. Probably the largest representative of the tannery and wholesale boot and shoe trade is the firm of Messrs. Lightband, Allan, and Co., who employ from 200 to 300 hands in the manufacturing department at Christchurch, and about 150 more in the tannery at Aylesbury. The boot and shoe trade is necessarily a very important industry, and the firms employed in it have, by carefully meeting the wants of the public, almost caused a cessation in the importation of foreign goods. But it must be remembered, when they make this boast, that they are protected to the extent of about one shilling per pair on strongest men's boots and of eightpence per pair on women's. Still it is probable that they could do as well without this slight protection as with it; and if under its ægis they have already got the field almost to themselves, and in consequence Government is making but little revenue out of duty, it would be as well for the public to try what open competition would do. The machinery in Messrs. Lightband's workshops is driven by an "Otto Silent" gas engine, and embraces American star-splitting, slicing, and split-lifting machines. The same engine works a Blake sole-sewing machine. The sewing machines used are those of Messrs. Jones and Co., of Guide Bridge, near Manchester; but for heavier work wax-thread machines, of American make, are employed, also driven

by the gas engine. The sole leather employed is entirely of New Zealand manufacture, tanned by wattle bark, and the uppers chiefly consist of French calf, although East India and colonial kips are largely employed. The leather shown by this firm seemed of excellent quality, and included a large variety of finish. We noticed the following makes well known to the trade :—Sole, horse tweed and tweed calf, waxed splits and waxed calf, brown harness and coach strap, besides other finishes too numerous to mention.

The wattle[2] or mimosa, which supplies bark to the New Zealand tanneries, is of the acacia tribe, and a native of Australia. The best descriptions of mimosa for tanning purposes are the *acacia pycnantha* and *acacia decurrens;* the former known as the golden or broad leaf, the latter as the black or feather leaf. Beyond the value of its bark, the tree can be utilized for various commercial purposes. The wood is well suited for cask-staves, axle-spokes, axe and pick-handles, and for many other articles requiring a tough and durable grain. The smaller branches make the most excellent firewood. In addition to these properties, it exudes a gum, valued in London at from 24*s.* to 30*s.* the cwt., the collection of which does not affect the bark for tanning. Indeed the less gum which the bark contains the better it is suited for the tannery. The cultivation of this tree in New Zealand has never been attempted on a large scale; but many instances occur of its growing to a great size on poor soils and in exposed situations. Whether the strength and quality of the bark will, under such circumstances, be equal to that from Australia

[2] The above account of the wattle or mimosa is taken from a pamphlet published by Messrs. Michaels, Hallenstein, and Farquhar, tanners, of Dunedin.

remains a question yet to be decided. It can only be hoped that some one more venturesome than his fellows will plant the wattle on an otherwise useless piece of ground and patiently abide the result.

Another industry consists in the preparation of native flax for commercial purposes. The valuable qualities of New Zealand flax, the *phormium tenax* of the botanist, have been known for many years. The plant is indigenous to the country, and grows in wild luxuriance along the banks of every stream, and more especially in the low-lying swamps about the coast. But notwithstanding all its valuable qualities, "the history of the flax industry," says Dr. Hector, "affords a remarkable instance of the difficulty experienced in developing the natural resources of a country if the commodities to be disposed of have not a previously established market value." So long ago as the year 1832, when New Zealand was only visited by whalers and Sydney traders, a manufactory was established at Grimsby, in Lincolnshire, for the purpose of working the fibre; but owing to the want of a regular supply, or from other causes, it died an early death. In 1861 the high price and large demand existing for Manilla stimulated a further endeavour to bring the fibre into use, and the export from 1866 to 1871 averaged a yearly value of 56,000*l*. It appears, however, that the people who undertook to prepare the fibre for export did not commence operations on a sound basis. It is said that they erected machinery before securing a certain supply of the raw material, and that prices in consequence rose against them to an extent which was not warranted by its marketable value. The firm of Messrs. Silburn and Co., of Amberley, has at length taken the matter in hand, and that with great success. Besides providing the

local manufacturer with fibre from which to spin his rope and twine, it is exporting large quantities both in the condition of fibre and as felt. In the latter form it is in a state suitable to the manufacture of the best paper, or papier-mâché. The firm took the precaution of purchasing and leasing considerable tracts of flax swamps before erecting its machinery. It is consequently at perfect ease, so far as regards a regular supply of the raw material. The plants, which grow somewhat after the form of an exaggerated aloe, are cut once every two years. This gives them a period of rest sufficient for the production of leaves of large and valuable proportions. The fibre is bleached by acids, and is exported in an excellent state for further manufacture. Where water gives enough humidity below the immediate surface of the soil the *phormium tenax* can be propagated with great success and to any extent.

In a pastoral country, abounding in supplies of tallow, it is not astonishing to find both soap and candle factories dotted here and there throughout its entire breadth. In one of the octagons, Messrs. McLeod Brothers, of Dunedin, exhibit a handsome glass case, which contains not only specimens of their usual productions, but several groups of figures made from wax. These, from their good execution and the fineness of the material used, stand as if carved in Parian marble. Amongst the groups is that of the "Three Graces," surrounded by several taking statuettes of girls dressed *à la bergère*. The candles may be called stearic or stearine, or by what other appellation the makers may happen to adopt as a distinctive trade mark; but, taken as a whole, they are well made, and find a large consumption at prices considerably below those ruling for English and Belgian goods.

In upholstery the colonial workshops make a very good display with furniture manufactured in the country. Iron and brass bedsteads, carpets, chintzes, and such like luxuries, have still to be imported. But the making up of furniture, including chairs, tables, sofas, and wardrobes, is carried on to a large extent, and has received a great impetus during the last few years. There exists among the trade a decided leaning towards the Queen Anne and even more æsthetic styles—a natural reflex of the present well-worn taste at home; but sufficient variety remains to allow the purchaser to select according to individual taste. Many of the native woods are specially adapted to the use of the cabinet-maker, and afford an almost inexhaustible variety of shade and colour. Rimu, or the *dacrydium cupressinum*, is a favourite for dining-room suites, the old wood being handsomely marked like rosewood, but of a lighter brown. Amongst other exhibits, we noticed a handsome inlaid table, consisting of 3500 pieces and of seventeen different woods. Above the table hung a frame, containing forty-two specimens of New Zealand woods. To make this number a few were duplicated, the object being to show both knot and ordinary grain, but all were suited to the trade. Perhaps the handsomest were the ribbon wood (*hoheria populuca*), the totara knot (*podocarpus totara*), and rewa rewa (*knightia excelsa*), this last most valuable for veneering.

Coach-builders exist in all the larger towns, some already enjoying a celebrity equal in their separate sphere to that of the fashionable builder at home. From some unexplained reason one or two of the best makers sent no specimens of their skill to Christchurch, although a considerable space had been reserved for their exhibits. Probably the hurried notice given left

but little time to prepare anything special in this class. But there were exhibited some handsome types of the landau and brougham, two styles of carriage for which the accumulating wealth of the larger towns is beginning to create a considerable demand. There might be seen, too, phaetons and wagonettes, a four-wheeled dog-cart or so, and some of those useful single-horse "buggies" in general use throughout the colony.

It would be impossible to enumerate all the colonial-made exhibits of jams, preserved meats, sauces, cheese, biscuits, and confectioneries; or to describe the electric batteries, horse-nails, jewellery, rugs, corsets, photographs, and beers and wines which are to be seen on all sides. Sufficient that these and similar industries are everywhere in operation, and give employment to many hundreds of the population.

We must pass on to a few of those more important trades which employ greater capital, more hands, and tend to a more direct development of the mineral resources of the country.

One of the most important of these is the coal trade. Scattered throughout the exhibition may be seen specimens from various pits already in operation, or from seams which have not yet been worked. If we examine the mineralogical collection, lent by the authorities of the geological museum, examples will be found of brown coal, pitch coal, and of semi-bituminous and bituminous coal. In a new country it necessarily takes some years before sufficient capital can be attracted to utilize the riches hidden beneath the ground, or it may be, in some cases, resting upon the very surface. Coal, above all other minerals, demands a great expenditure, outside itself, before it can be fully or even approximately utilized. A cumbrous article, it bears no

freight beyond one of limited extent. As a motive power a pound of coal can perform a certain work. Transported miles away, it can do no more. Any extra charge for carriage is in fact dead loss. Gold will bear a freight which coal cannot; but used in its proper place, the latter is as good as gold, because it attracts that precious metal. Coal, then, requires a pre-existing postulant before it can yield its treasures to increase a nation's wealth. To this most enviable stage of mineral development New Zealand has yet approached to only a small extent.

The output of New Zealand coal increases every year, whilst importations from New South Wales are rapidly falling off. In 1878 the quantity of coal raised in the colony was 162,218 tons; in 1880 it amounted to 299,923 tons; an increase in two years of over eighty-three per cent. In 1878 there were imported from abroad 174,148 tons; in 1880 the import fell to 123,298 tons, a decline of more than twenty-eight per cent. Were all the coal to-day consumed in the country raised from its own mines, there would be an approximate saving of 200,000*l.* per annum. A large proportion of the coal which has been worked, up to the present time, is hydrous, containing from ten to twenty per cent. of permanent water.[3] This description of coal occurs chiefly on the eastern coast of the south island. The hydrous coal consists of the following varieties: lignite, brown coal, and pitch coal. Pitch coal has a power of

[3] For this slight sketch of the mineral resources of New Zealand we are indebted to the "Handbook of New Zealand," compiled by Dr. Hector, M.D., C.M.G., F.R.S., Director of the Geological Survey, and published by direction of the Royal Commissioners of New Zealand to the Sydney International Exhibition of 1879. The work is scarce, and out of print.

converting 4·2 lbs. of boiling water into steam for each pound of coal consumed. Brown coal, which exists in considerable quantities, has a power of from 4·2 lbs. to 5·6 lbs. These coals are principally worked at Shag Point, a spot north of Dunedin; in various other parts of Otago; in Nelson, in Auckland, on the Waikato River, and in the Kaitangata mine, at Clutha, half way between Dunedin and Invercargill. The lignites occur in the interior of Otago, and at other places in superficial deposits of limited extent, and have been chiefly used by diggers.

The anhydrous or bituminous coal, containing less than 6 per cent. of water, is found in smaller, but still considerable quantities. Its value is far greater than that of the hydrous, and the experiments made upon it prove it to be equal to any coal that has been imported. Its evaporating power is from $6\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of water for the pound consumed. At the Buller mines, Mount Rochfort, in the Province of Nelson, the seams are from 10 to 40 feet thick. Accurate surveys of this coal-field shows it to contain 140,000,000 tons of bituminous coal of the best quality, and at the same time easily accessible. A railway nineteen miles in length is now completed along the level country at the base of the ranges in which the seam occurs. At the Bremner mine, on the Grey River, also in the Province of Nelson, and somewhat to the south of the Buller mines, is a seam 18 feet thick, which has been proved to extend one-third of a mile on the strike without disturbance. As at present known it covers a working area of 30 acres, containing 4,000,000 tons in its own basin. Its evaporating power is $7\frac{1}{2}$ lbs., and the mine is connected with its shipping port by a railway constructed by Government. The coal obtained from this

mine is eagerly bought up by gas companies and iron foundries, and is considered better than the finest coal from New South Wales. Coke made from it is valued at 3*l.* per ton. At Inanghua, Murray Creek, an 18-feet seam is worked, whilst at Collingwood, again in Nelson, thin seams of hard, bright, bituminous coal exist, covering an area of thirty square miles. Here, too, is to be found an abundance of iron ore and limestone, facts which, combined with great facilities for shipping, will no doubt cause this district to become one of great manufacturing importance.

Bituminous coal has been worked, since 1865, in Auckland, at the Kawa Kawa mines, Bay of Islands. The seam is about 13 feet thick, but contains much sulphur. There are also extensive deposits worked by several companies in the Malvern Hills, Canterbury,[4] and in certain parts of Otago.

From a consideration of these facts it will be evident that, whilst the mines already in operation provide labour for a large number of hands, vast resources of coal and iron ore waiting for future development exist. Such a development cannot be forced, it must come naturally, and be the result of a commercial necessity. Hastily constructed companies may readily produce a large supply of pig iron, or raise any amount of coal, but

[4] A recent analysis, by Dr. Hector, of coal from Hart's Pits, Whitecliffs, Canterbury, gives the following results:—

Fixed carbon	73·94
Hydro-carbon	16·60
Water	3·60
Ash	5·86
	100·00

This is a non-caking, altered brown coal, with an evaporative power of 9·6 lbs.

they cannot create the markets necessary to absorb their products. Any attempt artificially to force industries, which must in a few years have a great future, would most probably end in failure. A company started in London, or elsewhere, to develop the iron trade of New Zealand, might very possibly prove a failure, owing to the managers being imperfectly acquainted with the present conditions of the colony, or attempting to do by bounds and leaps that which can only be achieved by a natural evolution. Like that of the United States the mineral wealth of New Zealand has been as yet scarcely tapped. To attempt to forestall the inevitable would most probably result in the comparative or total ruin of those interested, although in both countries vast hidden wealth awaits the energy of future generations.

Almost every variety of iron has been discovered, but at Parapara, in Nelson, immense quantities of brown hematite occur on the surface of the ground. In 1873 an experiment was made in Melbourne, in which year some of this ore was converted into iron, and on analysis gave the following result:—

Iron	97·668
Manganese	·268
Carbon combined	·542
Carbon free (graphite)	·208
Silicon, with titanium traces	1·004
Phosphorus	·041
Sulphur	·269
	100·000

A very valuable deposit of brown hematite has been discovered at Mount Peel, Canterbury, the seam being 60 feet thick. The ore contains 56 per cent. of metallic iron, and has been traced for a distance of three miles,

after which it is said by diggers to swell out to as much as a mile in width. At present it would be impossible to work the deposit owing to its inaccessibility. Hematite exists also at Raglan in Auckland. From an analysis which has been made this would seem to be somewhat different to that of Ulverstone, and it may be of interest to compare the analyses which have been made of the two ores, so as to show the relative value of each, and from past experience to suggest to those interested the probable future in store for the iron ore of New Zealand.

Taking then, first of all, the Raglan hematite, it was found to contain of—

Sesquioxide of iron	72·69
Oxide of manganese	·31
Alumina	2·02
Magnesia	·69
Lime	·58
Phosporic acid (not estimated)	
Sulphide of iron	·11
Hygroscopic water	4·61
Constitutional water	13·02
Silicates undecomposed by acids	5·97
	100·00

The analysis of the Gilbrow ore,[5] Ulverstone, made by Mr. A. Dick, gives the following results:—

Peroxide of iron	86·50
Proto-oxide of manganese	·21
Lime	2·77
Magnesia	1·46
Carbonic acid	2·96
Phosphoric acid (trace)	
Sulphuric acid	·11
Insoluble residue	6·55
	100·56

[5] Taken from Ure's "Dictionary of Arts, Manufactures, and Mines."

Besides hematite the following iron ores are found in various parts of the country, namely, the specular, compact, magnetic, black iron sand, iron band, reniform, and bog iron ores. How far these are available, and in what quantities, time alone will show. Some exist in a greater proportion than others, but the deposits have to be more fully explored before a final judgment can be pronounced upon the relative quantities of each available for manufacturing purposes.

Iron at present is not worked, and it would be absurd to expect it to be so. The iron trade is, so to speak, a "heavy" industry, requiring large capital, and an extensive plant. We can only argue from analogy. We can only assert that, as the output of coal is increasing with a comparatively amazing rapidity, so in their turn iron ores will receive attention. But this will not take place before the position of the colony is such as to warrant capital to be expended in their manufacture, and that with a fair prospect of success.

For the present the best method that the public at home can pursue, for their own interest, is to entrust any surplus cash at their disposal to banks and other financial establishments, managed by persons who thoroughly understand the position of industries as at present existing. By pursuing this course a certain, although possibly a smaller, return will be secured. But investors would have a good assurance that their money is being utilized by those who not only thoroughly understand the business of the country, but are at the same time in position to lend the moneys entrusted to their care, so as to secure a profit where an outsider might fail to do so.[6] In all financial matters direct action is a

[6] To show that the warning given in the text is based upon actual

mistake, save for the few. The public should have a buffer, as it were, between it and any losses which may occur. As the buffer mitigates the shock on the iron road, so in finance, if a man is to suffer loss, a buffer will probably lessen its extent. It must be wise, in fact, to have another between ourselves and direct risk in ventures far remote. It may be pleasant to sit over the cosy fire and read post-prandially, the *Times* or *Telegraph;* to build airy castles whose foundations rest upon the promising prospectus of some embryo "company." But wisdom whispers, "Go rather to the friendly banker, or sound old business friend; invest your monies in corporation stock, in harbour works, or railways; invest, if you will, in good colonial bonds, and be that rarest of all things, a man both wise and happy. Do this, and countries, peoples, bankers, all will be working for you, and yourselves comparatively secure. It is better for the uninitiated to keep to safe investments, and leave to those less fortunately situated the chance of being superlatively wealthy or most miserably poor. For what is money, but accumulated labour, and the result of past exertion? Its power, although great, is limited.

experience, and that investors in foreign companies should be extremely cautious, we take the following paragraph from the Report of the Committee of the Auckland Chamber of Commerce, for the year 1881. "Haven Gold Mining Company, London.—It having transpired that a company had been formed in London, under the name of the Haven Gold Mining Company, and a prospectus, with the plans of ground, having been received, your Committee found, on inquiry with the Broker's Association, that the ground as per plan, was in the possession of, and worked by another company, and it was decided that a telegram signed by the chairman of this Chamber, and the chairman of the Brokers' Association, should be forwarded to the Bank of New Zealand, London, intimating that the ground referred to in the prospectus was in the possession of, and worked by another company here."

Accumulated though it be, it has to share the fate of all that seething, struggling mass, which constitutes the working classes, and which, in truth, is but its younger brother. The borrower says, "Thank you, I can get what I want somewhat cheaper elsewhere;" the workman says, "I am willing to work for you at so much;" the employer says, "Thanks, my good fellow, I can get quite as good a man as you for less." The value, then, of money and its synonym labour is fluctuating. This makes it safer for non-workers, who must utilize their capital, to lend it through some channel which is in immediate contact with the working world, and knows its value better than they can do. If not of those unfortunates who hasten to run before they well can walk, and, living in great state, discount prospective profits, take comfort from that apposite, if ancient saying, "A bird in hand is worth full two in bush."

Although New Zealand does not at present possess any smelting works, a most valuable paint is produced from the deposits of hematite ore. The trade has already attained considerable proportions, and the paint is in good demand for all outside work, especially for iron. The colours already obtained are—mineral blue, red oxide of iron, oak oxide, navy green, and black oxide.

Numerous dependent industries are, as at home, connected with the coal trade. Several companies have been formed for the purpose of making fire-bricks, drain-pipes, floor-tiles, and terra-cotta ware of all descriptions. Some of the specimens of large garden vases, and terra-cotta mouldings, as exhibited in Christ Church, showed great facility in execution, combined with excellent finish. Freight on bulky articles of this description is most expensive, rendering it doubly important to the

colony to possess several manufactories for them, within reasonable distance of the large towns. Common and pressed bricks have been in use for a long time, and abound everywhere; the corporations compel all persons erecting new premises within the boroughs to build either in brick or stone.[7]

The production of gold cannot be considered other than a native industry, and in the geological exhibits there are numerous specimens of gold-bearing quartz. Gold was first discovered in 1842, but it was only in 1852 that any system of production was attempted. Since that time nearly 42,000,000*l.* sterling have been exported. The largest export in any year was in 1866, although other years have followed close upon the total then reached, which amounted to 2,897,412*l.* The export fell to one million and a quarter in 1878, but there are to-day signs of a revival in the trade, nor must it be for one moment supposed that this falling off in the exports is a sign of the supply being exhausted to any appreciable extent.[8] Gold-mining is a trade, like every other business. Sometimes a demand exists for the precious metal, and sometimes the demand is slack, when the energies of the miners can find a more profitable field elsewhere. When gold is discovered in any country, the first efforts for its production in a marketable form are generally of the

[7] One of the principal firms employed in the production of stone ware and fire-clay goods is that of Austin, Kirk, and Co. (Limited), of Christchurch. In 1875 this firm received a bonus, from the then Provincial Government, for producing the first 2000*l.* worth of goods of this description. To-day it gives a living to between 700 and 800 persons, men, women, and children. Its machinery has been locally made at a cost of some 6000*l.*, and it had to purchase an estate near Sheffield, (N.Z.), from whence to procure a cheap supply of coal and clay.

[8] The export of gold was, in 1880, 1,227,252*l.*; in 1881, 1,080,790*l.*

most primitive description. The sands washed down by rivers or washed up by the sea occupy the whole attention of the miner. The real riches of the country contained in the quartz reefs, which have produced these alluvial deposits, defy the efforts of the individual. Dr. Hector assures us that gold-mining in the colony "is still in its infancy, and only awaits the judicious application of capital for its development to a vast extent." Quartz mines have already been worked in the North Island, both at Coromandel and in the Thames district, but the produce of these mines is infinitesimal when compared to the alluvial gold obtained in the South Island.

In the Coromandel and Thames gold-fields, reefs have been "proved" to a depth of over 600 feet below the sea level, but at present the best mines in the latter place have been confined "to decomposed and comparatively superficial rock. The quantity of gold that has been obtained from some of these quartz reefs is very great, and for considerable distances the quartz has yielded very uniformly at the rate of 600 ounces to the ton. Such reefs are, however, very exceptional in New Zealand." Auriferous reefs are worked in Otago, and have been found and worked in Westland, near Greymouth, which latter yielded from a few ounces to ninety-nine ounces of gold per ton. Although the production of gold has of late fallen off very considerably, the commencement of the prosperity of New Zealand may be traced to the great increase in its export which commenced in 1861, and has, with varying success, obtained to the present day. The mere knowledge that gold was to be found attracted both men and money, and its existence has hitherto contributed, and will in the future continue to contribute, to the wealth of the

country. Bi-metallists may meet in solemn conclave; they may declare *ex cathedrâ* that silver can be legalized to bear a fixed value in relation to gold; they may seek by subtle argument, and to meet a temporary disturbance, to foist a double currency on the world; but all their labour will be in vain. Such attempts will prove but puny efforts directed against the far-reaching provisions of a great Creator. There can be but a single standard by which to regulate the calculations of the world. Platinum would do as well as gold, but there is too little of it. Iron would do as well, but there is too much of it. Gold, on the other hand, exists in that nice proportion which renders it, when considered in conjunction with the difficulty and cost attending its procurement, the very thing. It is neither too plentiful nor too scarce. It was created to meet a necessary and long predestined want. How can it have a rival, and that rival silver? Suppose that one person has a pig, and another a cow. Can you force a buyer to take a pig when he wants a cow? And if you cannot do so much as this, how can you force the world to take an inferior article as of sterling value? In spite of conferences, we venture to assert that gold will win the day.

It is strange how sometimes the very sight of gold possesses an attraction for those who have seldom, or perhaps never seen it. We remember one instance, when a man gave fifty dollars clean away, simply to possess two little bits of gold. No other force, that we know of, could have had the same effect. It was upon a Mississippi boat, and we stood admiringly over a pen of Cotswold rams. Wrapped in a close attention of their symmetry and blood, we failed to see a raw-boned, lantern-jawed six-foot product of the far south-west, who stood beside us. At last we "viewed" him. We use the word

advisedly, for he was worth viewing. It may often have been thought that those portraits of the typical "Yankee" perpetuated in Tenniel's cartoons were but exaggerated caricatures. Certainly all Yankees are not thus. But on this occasion we stood face to face with one who, minus the inevitable stars, striped shirt, and bowie knife, might have sat as that artist's model. The bowie might be absent, the "six-shooter" we felt was there. "These are nice sheep," we remarked as an inoffensive way of commencing conversation. "Gla-ad you think so, stra-anger, they're mine." "Well, you've got two very fine rams, and we hope they'll do you some good." "Wa-all, I'll tell you how I got those sheep, colonel." [Observe the habitual respect for titles always exhibited by a true citizen of the class to which our friend belonged; if you do not carry a commission in your pocket, you always get brevet rank from such as he.] "I bought them tha-ar down Kentucky way. My friend asked 130.00 dollars for this he-ere ram—no more and no-o less. I says, 'Captain, I can't pay that 'ere price.' So we adjurns. Wa-all, I got two double eagle pieces of the-e United States in the pocket of my vest, and after supper I plays with one in my fingers, just so-o; and he says to me, 'What's you got the-ere, stranger?' And I says to him, 'A coin of the-e United States.' 'Wa-all, I don't know it,' he says, 'but it's mighty handsome.' 'Ya-as,' says I, 'and very scarce.' With that he says, 'Jest let me look upon it,' he says. 'You're welcome,' says I, and out I comes with t'other. Wa-all, to make a long story short, he says, 'Tell you what I'll do, old hoss. I've ta'en a tarnation fancy to those two coins; and tell you what 'tis, stranger; you shall have that ram for those two coin and thirty dollars on.' 'Done with you, colonel,' says I; but I

didn't tell him that gold was as plentiful down Texas as them darned greenbacks in old Kentuck." [9]

Copper, lead, zinc, antimony, and manganese ores are also to be found, but, for the reasons already stated, have not, with the exception of manganese, been utilized to any great extent. Manganese ore is worked at the Oronga Mine, Bay of Islands, the output being about 600 tons a month, and the price about 5*l.* 5*s.* per ton. It is principally composed of psilomelane, and is said to contain from 73 to 83 per cent of manganese dioxide. The lodes run from three to seven feet in thickness. Gold and silver are found in combination with the lead-ore: the latter to the extent of 26 ounces to the ton; and an antimony lode exists near Collingwood yielding over 185 ounces Troy of the same metal to the ton.

Leaving the raw material, and turning to the exhibits of articles manfactured therefrom, we observe several interesting objects, the results of New Zealand industry. Messrs. Scott, Brothers, of Christchurch, the makers of the engine at the Kaiapoi Woollen Works, show a high-pressure condensing engine of 14-horse power nominal, and Messrs. Anderson, of the Canterbury Foundry, several vertical donkey-engines with direct acting pump. The finish of these machines is excellent, and all the parts are made in the colony, with the exception of the taps and brasses, which are imported. Messrs. Anderson also show two boilers; one an ordinary Cornish boiler with Galloway tubes, the other multi-tubular. The plates of both are brought into the closest possible contact by an hydraulic riveting machine.

[9] During and after the late war, California and Texas were the only two states which retained a gold currency, the rest all adopting a paper medium. A local farmer in Kentucky would hardly know of this fact.

Boilers are necessarily very cumbrous and expensive to bring across the sea, which makes it doubly satisfactory to see work of this character produced so successfully in New Zealand. On the opposite side of the yard is the stand of Messrs. Reid and Gray, of Dunedin, agricultural implement makers. Their exhibits are of exceptionally good quality, and the firm possesses a widespread reputation throughout Australasia. They show double and treble furrow ploughs, harrows, disk harrows, drills, chaff-cutters, and other implements, all of colonial manufacture. But a branch of the business upon which they justly pride themselves is the excellency of their malleable and machine-made castings. These are superior to wrought, and far before common cast-iron. They will bend to an angle of 45 degrees sooner than break. Some specimens exhibited, as taken from the mould, are remarkable for the smoothness of their finish. The matrix for such castings can be prepared by a youth at about 15*s*. a week, instead of necessitating the employment of the more expensive and skilled hand-moulder. The firm employs a large number of workmen, and now spends twice as much in wages as it did a few years ago.

Most excellent kitchen-ranges of all sizes, from that suitable to the small cottage, to the larger one necessary for the wants of a big hotel, are made by several firms. The railway department has sent some well-finished specimens of work turned out by their shops at Christchurch and Dunedin. These consist of trucks for timber, cattle, and sheep; also guard's van and a well-upholstered horse-box. At present the locomotives and passenger carriages are imported; but no doubt it will soon pay to make them in the colony.

In the above short sketch we have endeavoured to

give some idea, however vague, of what has been done, and what yet remains to be done; of those points in which New Zealand excels, and in which she is deficient. Mention has been made of but few firms and of few articles, as to enter into more minute details would be beyond the scope of this work, and tedious. We cannot, however, omit some mention of the great merit of the agricultural produce exhibited. Sacks of peas and beans are to be seen which resemble rather the produce of highly-cultivated gardens than of large field-crops. Wheats and other cereals are simply magnificent. No doubt they are extra carefully dressed, but the grain must be intrinsically good to produce such samples. We noticed the following weights per imperial bushel :—

White Tuscan wheat	65 lbs.
Velvet chaff	65½ lbs.
Canadian oats	52 lbs.
Poland	52½ lbs.
Chevalier barley	57 lbs.

These weights do not represent solitary specimens. As nearly as possible a fair average has been selected. For instance, some velvet chaff is shown weighing 67½ lbs., or 2 lbs. more than the weight selected as a standard.

Specimens of stone suitable for building and other purposes make a considerable display, and represent the large supplies which exist, except in certain parts of the North Island. Some sorts are suitable for building purposes; others for road-making and similar uses. Among them we find basalt and durites, trachytes, granites, crystalline schists, limestones, and sandstones. Close-grained statuary marble is found in Casswell Sound. These quarries are now being worked by a company newly formed, but which has already 400 tons ready for shipment. Specimens of this marble, as

at present exhibited, are taken from the surface, the colour being white mottled with grey. Good marble also exists in the Mount Arthur district, Nelson. "Natural cement stones or Septaria occur," says Dr. Hector, "in the lower part of the marine tertiary series, and in some cases are quite equal in quality to those which are burnt for the manufacture of hydraulic cement in Europe. The cement hitherto used so largely in New Zealand has been imported, but with the great resources that the colony possesses in the raw material for the manufacture, this will probably not be long continued." . . . "The manufacture of Portland cement might be made an important industry in New Zealand, excellent lime and non-ferruginous clay being obtainable."

In order to stimulate colonial industries, the Government has been in the habit of offering bonuses to persons who shall be the first to produce or manufacture articles of an ascertained commercial value tending to promote the development of the country. At the present moment the following bonuses are offered. One of 300*l.* for the first fifty tons of starch shipped to an English market, and certified to be of good marketable quality. A bonus of fifty per cent. on the value realized for the first thousand pounds' worth of cocoons of the silkworm, or silkworm's eggs, produced in the colony. A bonus of 500*l.* for three years in succession for the refining each year, by machinery established in New Zealand, of not less than 100 tons of cane sugar. A bonus of 1000*l.* for the production in New Zealand of 300 tons of pig-iron of marketable quality from ore produced in New Zealand. A bonus of 500*l.* for the first twenty-five tons of butter, or the first fifty tons of cheese produced by a factory, worked on the American principle, which shall be exported from New Zealand and sold at such prices

as to show that the articles are of fair quality. The circumstances under which these bonuses are offered, and the reason for their being offered, require little explanation. It need only be stated that the climate of New Zealand is well adapted to the mulberry, and that considerable importations of trees and "seed" have already taken place. Before many years are past it is probable that sericiculture, and its attendant industries, will prove to be a new source of wealth to those who have undertaken the introduction of the silk-worm.

To state all that we colonists think our islands capable of producing in the future would be a mistaken policy, and lead in many cases to great disappointment to those who invest their moneys, trusting to such statements, and yet not apprehending that all growth must be gradual. We consider that it is one thing to state what a country is capable of in the future, and another to say that such a future is to be to-morrow. Our own view is that New Zealand will in future years become a prosperous manufacturing and producing community. That she will resemble England in so far, that while she produces a certain amount of grain and the necessaries of life, her ultimate destiny is to become an importer of necessaries and an exporter of manufactured articles. Placed at the very antipodes, it is probable that she will have no rival to compete with her in the Southern Archipelago, and that she will supply it with manufactured goods, receiving in return the produce of its coffee, sugar, and cotton plantations. Wool and iron and coal she has already. Do these ideas appear chimerical? Consider for one moment her short career. Consider what these pages have shown she has already done. Consider that if in thirty years she has so progressed,

what limit can be assigned to the progress which may be made during the next fifty or one hundred years.

These words must, however, be taken only in the spirit in which they are uttered, as a forecast of what may, and most probably will be, but not as representing what is. They are *in posse* not *in esse.* To show that they have some chance of realization, and to prove that such ideas are being developed for future good in the minds of our merchants, we conclude the present chapter with a quotation from the address delivered last year by the President of the Dunedin Chamber of Commerce. Mr. Larnack on that occasion said,—"We are warranted in cherishing hopes that a very large trade will grow up between this colony and India in connexion with refrigerated meats, dairy produce, &c. What is wanting mainly to develop such a trade is direct steam communication between that country and this. As with most other events in this age of progress, it is only a question of time when the people of India will look forward with regularity to receive monthly shipments of, and relish at their tables with exceeding gusto, beef, mutton, and dairy produce of New Zealand."

CHAPTER XIII.

PUBLIC WORKS.

ONLY so recently as the year 1870, what is now known as the Immigration and Public Works Policy was adopted. The local authorities were manifestly unequal to the task of constructing the arterial roads, railroads, and other public works, which were imperatively necessary for the present and future good of the colony. If New Zealand was not to stagnate and fall behind the other Australasian colonies, if she was to develop her resources and invest her soil with attractions for future immigrants, it became a duty to take immediate steps for the purpose of carrying out these and other much to be desired improvements. Such a task was beyond the powers of individual settlers; nay it was too much even for the separate Provincial Governments. The scheme proposed was not provincial, but national in its character. There was, consequently, but one body which possessed either the necessary credit or power to carry out the works which were to be undertaken. That body was the Central Government. Sir Julius, at that time Mr. Vogel, was the first to grasp the real necessities of the position, and to startle many of the then colonists almost out of their wits by the boldness and extent of his schemes. Sir Julius, however, was successful in passing the "Immigration and Public Works

Act, 1870," and for a time all went merry as a marriage bell. Large loans were effected; railways, roads, telegraphs, and public buildings, were everywhere in course of foundation and erection; while the interest on moneys borrowed for these purposes was met by the proceeds of the enormous sales of land annually effected by the Government of the day. These in 1878 amounted to the large quantity of 642,667 acres, netting the handsome sum of 1,252,954*l.* But so great an inflation was not destined to continue. Owing to the depreciated prices ruling for produce, to the bad trade which everywhere existed, and to many extraneous causes, sales of land were reduced by more than one half in 1879, to be followed by a still further reduction in 1880 and 1881. As a proof of this the rural land sold in 1878, within the district of Canterbury, amounted to 554,168 acres; in 1879 to but 269,754 acres; whilst in 1880 and 1881, the sales were respectively 25,987 and 20,862 acres. From these figures it is easy to comprehend what a falling off such a diminution in the sales of land caused to the income of the colony, and what a serious embarrassment it created for the Government—an embarrassment which was not at all lessened by the sudden curtailment of all other sources of revenue. It is indeed probable that if the minister of finance had not been fortunate enough to raise a loan for 5,000,000*l.*, through the agency of the Bank of England, the position would for the moment have been very critical. But the danger was tided over, and it may safely be asserted is not likely to occur to a similar, or anything like a similar, extent again. In fact there is little room for such a crisis to be repeated. When the public works policy was first commenced, but few productive works were in existence, and those few had been promoted by the provinces. The way was per-

fectly open for any amount of speculation and infatuation. Nothing existed on which to build calculations, save the sanguine and overheated imaginations of the speculators themselves. But in 1882 so much has been accomplished that little room is left save for the gradual extension and enlargement of existing works. The foundation has been already laid, and proves, as will presently be seen, a successful enterprise. The partial failure of any new and secondary undertakings can never again shake the whole fabric to its base. England has passed through the mania of her South Sea Bubble—and it burst. She has experienced the effects of the disastrous railway inflation of forty years ago, but it is impossible that she should again suffer in a precisely similar manner, and from the same causes. Her railways have become a necessary part of her very existence. So it is with New Zealand. The country suffered, and suffered deeply, from over excitement, and a too lavish expenditure on public works; but after a time of trouble, she is rising stronger than before.

For a time Sir Julius Vogel was the popular favourite. His was considered the true and only policy by which the country could be developed. But when the troubles of 1879 were at their height, his was the blame, accorded too with an almost universal acclamation. The scape-goat of the hour, he was but a faint reflection of Hudson, the Railway King, dethroned long years before. But the collapse in New Zealand was not the fault of Sir Julius only, but of the men who enlarged upon his views, and, headed by Sir George Grey, afterwards held the reins of power. Sir Julius Vogel's policy was undertaken for a special purpose, and defined the extent of money to be borrowed. His successors piled loan upon loan, and public work on public work, until there

rose a universal cry for railways, roads, bridges, schools, from every large estate and petty township. People indeed had lost their heads, and abandoned common sense was under the influence of a quickly to be expected wealth, and the instant advent of a new millennium.

The first proposal made by Sir Julius was, that Government should undertake certain works of a purely colonial character, and that the sum of money to be borrowed for that purpose should be limited to ten millions sterling. This was to be expended in the construction of a main trunk railway, to run through the length of both islands; on roads in the North Island; on the purchase of land from the natives; on telegraph works; for procuring a better supply of water on the gold-fields; and lastly, in promoting an extensive system of immigration.

Prior to 1870, the gross public indebtedness of the colony amounted to six millions and three-quarters; but the public works policy once commenced, not only was the proposed ten millions added to the debt, but in the short space of ten years a further sum of twelve millions was obtained. The public debt was thus increased during the eleven years 1870—1880, by twenty-two millions sterling, an expenditure altogether too great for a new country of the dimensions of New Zealand, even when taking into consideration its large natural, but still undeveloped, resources. It became necessary for the Government to stay its hand, and that it was compelled to do so, was a fortunate circumstance. Time was allowed in which to ascertain the success of what had been done. A successful result was, sooner or later, bound to follow close upon the heels of the large capital which had been sunk in works of practical utility, both by Government and private enterprise, during those few

years. But in the meantime the large falling off in the sale of land compelled the Government to supplement its income by further taxation, and to reduce as far as possible the annual cost of the various branches of the civil service. New sources of revenue were found in the property tax, and in an additional beer tax; while the overgrown and disproportionate expenditure existing in many branches of the public service, was cut down with an unsparing hand.

Happily it only required the experience of two or three years to prove that the money expended in public works did not represent so much capital thrown carelessly into the sea. It had to a great extent been sunk in reproductive schemes, which are fast beginning to bear fruit. With the public works policy commenced a turning-point in the history of the colony, the ultimate extent and direction of which it is almost impossible to foresee. Those who only knew the country prior to 1870, would hardly recognize it at the present time. Before that year the Provincial Governments had already done something; road-making had been begun, and here and there, in the South Island, some disconnected lines of rail had been completed. But travelling was yet a matter both of time and difficulty; and still more difficult was it to get up-country produce to a market or sea-port. In 1882, many thousands of acres, valued before 1870 at from 1*l.* to 3*l.*, are salable at from 9*l.* to 20*l.* A large producing and thriving population is settled on lands previously unworked; trunk-lines of railway, with their many branches, connect the towns with each other; convenient posts exist; telegraphs run in every direction; and the population, exclusive of the Maori race, has increased since 1871 by nearly 84 per cent. The scheme then of Sir Julius Vogel, bold as it may at one time have

appeared, overdone as it undoubtedly was by succeeding ministers, has proved of almost untold value to New Zealand. Debts may have been incurred which seemed for a time almost too great to bear, but the colony is rising from these same struggles far richer, and more prosperous than could otherwise have been the case. But every picture has its reverse, and the very fact of so much being already done, and of so many advantages being ready to the hand, precludes the colony from offering such cheap bargains to the new comer as he could wish, or might probably expect. It cannot be otherwise. What have railways, telegraphs, and the penny post done for land and trade at home? Compare the position of South Kensington, Wimbledon, and Highgate now, with that of some thirty years ago. They possess advantages which they had not then, and their value has increased fourfold. Just so out here. But the question still remains, is the present additional cost of land worth paying for? We think it is, or else what good to make improvements, and create facilities for trade and social life, either here or elsewhere? If it is not, the world had better rest *in statu quo*.

It is a question of great import to ascertain how those 22,000,000*l*. have been spent, and how far they are and can be made productive.

Some of the money was spent on immigration. During the years 1871-78, and both inclusive, 1,638,175*l*. were spent by the Government, and 74,409*l*. by the Provincial Governments, in the introduction of fresh blood. It is difficult to estimate the actual result of this large expenditure. The total number of immigrants during the period was 157,946; but, on the other hand, of 16,263 persons who arrived in 1878, only 6618 came out at the public charge. Taking a broad view, it would appear

that each Government immigrant must have cost the country at least twenty pounds, and beyond this must be taken into account a certain leakage always observable in new countries. This leakage is caused by the discontent of certain of the arrivals with their new home and the prospects which it affords. Making a fair allowance for births over deaths, it would appear that out of 158,000 immigrants, about 20,000 again migrated during this period. Perhaps no country has been more disturbed than Canada by the considerable leakage experienced from amongst the ranks of those newly arrived. From Canada to the United States the only impediment consists in an easily spanned river. Between New Zealand and Australia 1000 miles of sea intervene, and the leakage has been naturally smaller than from the Dominion, or at least than it used to be. We remember once, when lounging on the Kingston pier, and waiting some hours for the cargo boat to Montreal, to have been the silent witness of the following: A decently-dressed man and wife came to the ticket office and asked the price of a double fare to some place in Illinois. The clerk gave the required information. The husband said, as he turned somewhat sadly round, "Aye, wife, but it's a great deal of money." And *she* just put her hand upon his arm, and said, "It may be, John, but you know we can do nothing here; it may be better to spend the money and go." The tickets were bought, and we could not but honour the little woman for her pluck and sage forethought, standing as she was face to face with that long and dreary winter. A Canadian winter, with its bright sun and exhilarating air, may be productive of great pleasure to the fur-clad skater, but what for good does it present to those who toil for their daily bread? However Manitoba and the

new Far West may restrain a former leakage, it was for many years extremely great. Looking at the matter in a practical form, we do not consider that a leakage of 20,000 in 158,000 will be found excessive in view of all the circumstances migration brings in its train.

In a new country population must be obtained at all hazards; but when a fair number are settled on the soil, few will speak in favour of the continuance of a free immigration policy. And this not because such a system abnormally depreciates the value of labour, but because it brings a large percentage of persons unsuited to their new home and its future duties. It is frequently stated in the public prints that "the immigrants just arrived are of a superior class," and so they may be; but with "the immigrants of a superior class," most of whom, by the bye, have probably paid or partly paid their passage, arrives a considerable quantity of scum. This scum, for the most part, consists of aimless, useless individuals at best, but also of a class of thorough idlers, bad citizens wherever they be, and ever ready to disturb the willing worker.

People generally would be pleased to see a continuance of the so-called "nominated" immigration. This system consists in a present colonist being allowed to name to Government friends and relatives at home willing to come out. Part of the passage-money is paid by Government and part by the nominators. By this means a class of persons is introduced having both home and friends to go to on first landing, and whose selection by present colonists affords sufficient guarantee that they are suitable subjects for public assistance.

Probably, too, the Government ought to assist those who, with a few pounds in hand, need but a little more to pay their passage. The fact that they have scraped

and saved, and done their best, is almost sufficient evidence that something sterling lies behind. But a recommencement of free emigration would be both unpopular and most unwise. We do not want the ladies of the ballet, the Italian organ-grinder, or even as yet the helpless maker of dolls' eyes, all of whom were, under a system of free emigration, thrown broadcast upon the land—with what measure of success their past will tell too truly.

From 1869 to 1879 the Government expenditure on roads amounted to 975,552*l.*, the length constructed being about 3000 miles. In addition to these public highways, numerous district roads have been constructed by the road boards, the expenditure through the latter source amounting in the year 1877 to no less than 387,534*l.* Without studying the accounts of the separate boards and counties, it is difficult to estimate the total amount spent on roads and bridges, nor is such an investigation necessary for the present purpose. Sufficient that the results are most satisfactory, and that the highways and many of the district roads would vie with the best of English turnpikes, whilst others, which have been more recently formed and metalled, are each year getting into better condition. It may be that occasionally when going across country, rough tracks have to be travelled over, when good springs and stout harness are very needful. But each year sees a change for the better, and Canterbury, at all events, may well be proud of the facilities which it gives for locomotion. It is difficult to find outside Great Britain better roads than those in New Zealand. For the purpose of comparison we should have to visit the military highways across the passes of the Alps, or the well-known post-road along the Riviera. The money which has been sunk in roads

may nominally be lost, but it is repaid with more than compound interest by the increased value of the land around.

Following hard upon roads come railroads. If any person were to turn, for the sake of comparing what is with what was, to Messrs. Silver's excellent and impartial Handbook[1] to the colonies, which brings down the history of New Zealand to about the year 1871, he could not fail to be struck with such sentences as these "The want of good means of communication is a serious drawback to the colony. . . . . Railways are not of much interest in New Zealand at present. . . . . Railways are of imperative necessity to the expansion of trade." These remarks were, no doubt, true in 1871, but not in 1882. Eleven years have wrought a change of the greatest magnitude and importance. To-day the colony possesses 1319 miles of railway, constructed at a cost of about eleven millions sterling, and which gave last year a profit of $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. Of the total length constructed, 449 miles are in the North Island, and were built at a cost of about 3,600,000*l.* The charge for working these northern lines amounts to about 67 per cent. of the gross receipts. In the South Island, 870 miles of railway have been formed, at a cost of over 7,000,000*l.*, the expense of working being slightly over 56 per cent. But it is worthy of remark that while the profit earned on all the New Zealand lines comes to the fair sum of $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., that obtained by those in the South Island was more than $4\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. Again, whilst in 1881 the profit earned by the whole railway system secured a dividend of 3*l.* 8*s.* 3*d.* per cent., the Canterbury lines by themselves yielded 7.33 per cent.;

[1] Handbook for Australia and New Zealand. S. W. Silver and Co., London. 1874.

and nothing exists, although we have not the necessary figures at hand to prove the case, to prevent a similar result from being obtained this year. As at home, the best paying lines have to contribute to those that do not pay so well, in order to raise the dividend over the whole system to $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.

In 1882, with 1319 miles opened, the railways yielded a gross return of 676*l.* per mile as against, in 1881, 655*l.* per mile on the 1277 miles then opened for traffic. In the former year the net profit was 368,927*l.* as against 314,497*l.* in 1881, thus showing a considerable improvement.

The success which has followed the railway system appears the more remarkable when we consider that the lines have for the most part been carried through comparatively uninhabited tracts of country. The position which they have attained helps to prove the great economy derived from railways constructed in a country whose business centres are not too far removed from each other, and where wide-spreading and unproductive wastes do not exist between the several termini.

It will be found necessary before long, in order further to develop the growing importance of the colony, to construct one or more lines of considerable magnitude. The chief of those under present consideration are the Central Otago and the Christchurch and West Coast lines. The promoters of the Central Otago are endeavouring to make their line a part of the present Government system; the promoters of the Christchurch and West Coast are trying to accomplish their object through a private company. We are here brought face to face with a question of considerable difficulty, and with one which will no doubt find both its supporters and opponents. This question must sooner or later be de-

finitely settled, namely: How far it is advisable for Government to enter into further railway liabilities; and whether, having undertaken the main lines, it should not pause, and leave it to private enterprise to do the rest? It is self-evident that, if these lines will pay for making, they are worth the consideration of private companies. If they will not pay, ought Government to tax the whole country for the benefit of what must for years to come, be solely a local interest? It may be argued that because Government undertook in 1870 to construct certain railways, which have already proved successful, it therefore should continue to construct all railways as may be from time to time required. But this line of argument is open to dispute. In 1870 no railways existed, and it was necessary for the future of the colony that main lines to traverse the length of the two islands should be formed. No private corporation, it has been shown, would have been powerful enough to effect this. Having done what was absolutely necessary, does it follow that Government is to undertake the construction of every line which is to be built in the future? To do so would probably be tantamount to charging the general taxpayer with an unnecessary and vexatious system of local extensions. This would appear to be almost suicidal, and retard rather than advance the prosperity of the country. Rather let the Government leave well alone, and if more lines are to be constructed, as constructed they must be, relegate to private enterprise any further consideration of the matter. Private enterprise will be more likely to secure any profit which is to be made, than the more indirectly responsible employés of this or any other Government. It is a general complaint amongst the colonists, that the railways as at present managed are not worked so conveniently for the country,

or making so large a return as would be the case if under private control. Great irregularities and unnecessary expenditure were brought to light by the Railway Committee appointed by the Hall Government, some two years ago, to investigate the working of the lines. The labours of the Committee have resulted in a considerable reduction in the working expenses, but without any corresponding attention being bestowed upon the convenience of the public. In 1871-80 the cost of working the whole system was over 76 per cent. of the returns; in 1881-82 this had been reduced to 58·64 per cent. Were it to be determined that the lines at present contemplated should be undertaken by private companies, the immediate results to the shareholders might be problematical, but the ulterior value of the property would certainly reward their enterprise. New and valuable tracts of country would be opened up for settlement, and traffic would shortly grow in a most surprising degree. During the five years immediately preceding the public works policy, the exports averaged 4,335,000*l.*, 2,500,000*l.* of which consisted in gold, leaving but about 1,800,000*l.* for other produce. The exports for the years 1880-81 averaged 6,206,779*l.*, of which gold is entered but for 1,150,000*l.*, leaving over 5,000,000*l.* each year for other articles, and this too in face of a large increasing consumption within the country itself.[2]

The first telegraph pole erected in New Zealand was raised in Christchurch on the 19th May, 1862. On the 19th May, 1882, or twenty years afterwards, 3758 miles of line were in working order, carrying 9587 miles of wire, and of this length 2820 miles were duplexed,

[2] For more detailed particulars of the working of the New Zealand railways during the past two years, see Appendix, Tables E, and F., pages 380, 381.

making the total amount of single wire 12,407 miles. The erection of the telegraph system cannot have cost the Government much less than half a million, a sum which, although large, pays a very good acknowledgment into the colonial treasury.

Further considerable amounts have been spent in public buildings, in the purchase of native lands, on water-races, on education, on miscellaneous works, and in grants to various corporate bodies, into the details of which it would be tedious to enter. For the most part this money has been well expended, and has greatly assisted in developing the harbours, promoting the education, and generally furthering the advancement of the colony.

But besides those of a purely government character, there are many most important works administered by boards, created by and acting under powers granted by Parliament. Chief amongst these must be reckoned the various harbour-boards, elected for the purpose of developing the several ports placed under their control. The principal ports are those of Port Chalmers, Lyttelton, Auckland, and Wellington. Of these, Port Chalmers, or Dunedin, heads the list with an import trade for the year ending the 31st December, 1881, of 3,970,644*l.*; Lyttelton stands second, with 2,837,397*l.*; Auckland third, with 2,303,237*l.*; and lastly, Wellington, with 1,791,635*l.*

To fit the above ports for carrying on this large trade, considerable sums have had to be sunk; but the interest on all loans is more than met by the shipping and port dues collected at each place. The port of Lyttelton is probably the most perfect of any, containing an area of 109 acres within the breakwaters, and with a depth of from 19 to 23 feet at low tide. The harbour-board is now contemplating the purchase of a still more powerful

dredger than any which it at present possesses, for the purpose of further deepening the basin and rendering it available for a larger class of vessel. Enclosed by the Port Hills, Lyttelton is well protected from heavy seas, and if, occasionally, a gale of more than unusual severity causes some inconvenience to the shipping, the risk is no greater to vessels than it would be were they lying in one of the many docks situated on the banks of Father Thames. A handsome dry dock has just been completed, 450 feet long on the floor, and with a depth of 23 feet of water on the sill. It is also proposed to build a slip hard by. The export shed is the largest in the southern hemisphere, and is situated on a quay where six months ago there was but a depth of 8 or 9 feet of water. To-day a vessel can leave the same spot drawing 23 feet. The import sheds, the Gladstone pier, and the many jetties, are all connected by sidings with the Christchurch and Lyttelton railroad, presenting the greatest possible conveniences for the quick discharge and loading of vessels. A large available space of some four acres still remains, on which further sheds can be built, and from which numerous other jetties can be thrust out into the basin. The port presents a busy and bustling scene; nor can it fail to raise in the breasts of all true Englishmen a pardonable pride, when they recognize in this far-off corner of the globe a share of that indomitable energy which has raised the maritime supremacy of the grand old weather-beaten isle at home to its present power.

During the year 1881, some 1816 vessels, of 342,303 tons, were entered; and 1811, of 338,637 tons, were cleared, giving an average per month of over 300 vessels inward and outward bound. Nearly three-parts of this trade was coastwise. Frequently there may be seen some two

dozen or more ocean-going ships helping to crowd the piers and jetties, and exhibiting in their handsome lines examples of some of the best models turned out from Dundee or Aberdeen. Built, perhaps, as clippers for the China trade, they seek in the southern seas a refuge from the fatal competition of the more powerful propeller. From the stately ship of 1800 to 2000 tons, they fall in almost impalpable gradation to the fine lined barque of half that size. Ere many years have passed, it is to be feared that even here a goodly number will find themselves deposed, and instead of their lofty masts and tapering spars, the monster funnel and subsidiary rig of the relentless screw will occupy their place. The skippers themselves think this, and as the volume of trade expands, the quicker and more certain motive power is sure to conquer all present obstacles.

Last year the number of vessels belonging to the port consisted of eighty, with a tonnage of 23,172 tons. The New Zealand Shipping Company makes Lyttelton the headquarters of its fleet which runs between the colony and Great Britain. This accounts for the somewhat large tonnage in proportion to the number of vessels hailing from the port. This company is one of the most important commercial enterprises in New Zealand. Supported by a powerful bank, and the business of a large financial institution, it has, since its foundation, monopolized a large share of the carrying trade. Possessing seventeen ships of its own, it employs, on an average, thirty-four others which it charters from various shipowners. No doubt it meets with a certain amount of competition, but the colonists are disposed to fancy that in view of the good dividends distributed to its shareholders, a little more competition would be better for the public. They would like to see homeward freights re-

gulated by the supply of vessels on the berth, rather than by resolutions passed at a board of directors. Such resolutions they consider more likely to lean towards the interests of the shareholders than of the public. The company, in fact, seems to stand in relation to producers somewhat as did the Jesuits to the earlier settlements in South America. As the Jesuits fostered education and the sciences at a time when, without their help, such good things would have been conspicuous by their absence, so did the New Zealand Shipping Company support the trade of the colony at a time when its assistance was of the utmost importance. But as, when civilization advanced and population increased, the power of the Jesuits declined, so, in face of a larger trade and greater facilities, it is probable that the Shipping Company will soon have touched the acme of its monopoly. Although sometimes unavoidable, more particularly in the first phases of its existence, it does not tend to the progress of any country to be more or less in the hands of a few monopolists. It does not matter with what department of its economic development such monopolists may be connected. Absolute freedom must be preferable to comparative serfdom. The company itself is evidently of opinion that to maintain its present position and be prepared for any change in the shipping trade, a considerable alteration in the conduct of its business will be necessary. At an extraordinary general meeting held in Christchurch on the 23rd of last May, it was determined to increase the capital to one million pounds. This resolution was carried both for the purpose of increasing the number of its vessels, and of adding to the fleet steamers capable of running out and home at the rate of from ten to eleven knots per hour. It must also be considered as a near promise of direct steam communication

being established with the old country. In fact, it is not at all certain but that other companies will have made a commencement before the Shipping Company is prepared to do so. The establishment of a direct line of steamers will not only increase the accessibility of the colony, but will effect an important saving in the transit of all commodities.

The port of Dunedin, like that of Christchurch, is situated some miles from the town itself, and is connected with it by a branch line of about nine miles in length. Dunedin possesses a considerable advantage over Christchurch, in being placed at the head of a bay which already admits of vessels drawing twelve feet of water being brought close to its very warehouses. It has had difficulties to contend with in an outside bar, which occasionally silts up to such an extent as to make it dangerous for vessels drawing more than twenty feet of water to make the port. To remedy this a larger dredge has been imported, which, it is presumed, will prove sufficiently powerful to keep the channel open. But the people of Dunedin do not intend to rest content with this. They feel, to use the words of Mr. Larnack, that, "it is only a question of time, the deepening of the Otago Harbour . . . and as surely as the evening and the morning of the sixth day saw the completion of the world, so will the evening and morning of a future time, not far distant, see the Intercolonial boats steaming to the Dunedin wharves, where they will, in the near future, discharge and receive cargoes." This cannot be lightly regarded as an exaggerated statement. To a careful observer it must be evident, that with so much already done, the completion of the work cannot be long deferred. Dunedin is to-day the leading business centre of New Zealand, and it is not to be supposed that her merchants will allow the

grass to grow beneath their feet. Dunedin has had the honour of shipping the first cargo of frozen meat. Another cargo has been placed in London, to consist of from 7000 to 10,000 carcases, and more are still to follow. A steamer is to be sent from home to receive this shipment. New Zealand mutton is juicy, well-flavoured, and of excellent quality—quite equal to anything which the consumer can get at home. The result of the first shipment netted 25*s.* a carcase to the exporter, whilst the price at which he could have sold in Dunedin would have been about 16*s.* The introduction of this new industry will no doubt tend to hasten the advent of through steam communication.

Port Chalmers already possesses a graving-dock 328 feet long, with a depth of twenty-two feet of water on the sill. Not content with this dock, which was the first of the kind constructed in the colony, she is preparing to build another, 500 feet long, and superior in other ways to the Lyttelton dock already described.

In the year 1881, clearances outward amounted to 925 vessels of 230,045 tons, and inward to 938 vessels of 242,672 tons. The tonnage registered as belonging to the port consisted of seventy-eight sailing-vessels and thirty-four steamers, with a united tonnage of 17,491. The large number of steamers is owing to Dunedin being the headquarters of the Union Steam Shipping Company —a company which, for the present, possesses almost an entire monopoly of the intercolonial and coasting trade. The company have on the way, or on the stocks, ten new steamers. Five of them are for the coasting trade, and five, with a larger carrying capacity, are to run to Australia and replace those at present employed on the Intercolonial line. The largest of the new steamers are all of similar dimensions, namely, 285 feet long, 36 feet

wide, and 25 feet deep. A steamer built by Messrs. Deenny Brothers, but put together at Port Chalmers, has just been launched; this is intended for the river trade in Fiji, and will act as a feeder to the company's boats trading between Fiji and the colony. She is built entirely of mild steel, having a length of 80 feet, a width of 18, and a depth of hold of 8 feet.

Direct steam communication has long exercised the minds of Dunedin merchants. At the last meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, it was stated that in the case of thirty-two sailing-ships, 107½ days were expended from the date of leaving the East India Docks before the goods were warehoused in Dunedin. The average of twenty-eight steamers, bringing goods *viâ* Melbourne, was sixty-seven and a half days between the dates of the bills of lading and the delivery of the goods. The interest of the money at eight per cent. would more than make up the difference between the freight by sail and that by steam. With steam it was said the merchant would be able to make his capital go much further. Such would no doubt be the case, and it is pretty certain that, with increased competition between two or three lines of steamers, freight would rule lower than it does at present. To meet this want, it was a short time since suggested to the Union Company to take up the home trade, but the idea did not receive that amount of attention which it deserved. When the New Zealand Shipping Company run steamers direct to London, it is difficult to see how the Union Company can help following suit. The trade from Sydney and Melbourne must chiefly consist of transhipments from vessels of the Orient, and P. and O. Services, with which a direct line is sure to interfere to a considerable extent.

Auckland possesses its dry dock, and is the port of

call for the St. Francisco and Australian mail boats. She carries on a large trade with the many islands of the Pacific, and, although an importer rather than an exporter of cereals, finds some compensation in the produce of her mines and forests. Besides her valuable timber, the *Damnara Australis*, or Kauri-tree, yields a turpentine known in commerce as the celebrated "Kauri gum." It is found in large lumps, and excavated from the sites of old forests as far south as Taranaki. The production of this gum is confined to Auckland, nor is it known to exist in any other part of the world. The port possesses wharves, alongside which steamers of the largest tonnage can come at any hour of the day, regardless "of the state of the tides;" and consequently, argues the chairman of its Chamber of Commerce, "any direct steam service to England, to be a financial success, must make Auckland its headquarters, whether our southern friends like it or not." Partly this may be very true, but it must be recollected that in order to assure a financial success, steamship companies require something more than a good harbour and cheap coal. The volume of the import and export trades of the several ports of the country to which they run is likely to command their most careful attention. The probability is that, provided a good harbour and fairly cheap coal exists, headquarters will be selected at that port which, from its greater trans-oceanic trade, holds out the prospect of securing the heaviest and most remunerative freights.

Napier, Nelson, Greymouth, Hokitika, Timaru, Oamaru, and Invercargill are all ports of a secondary importance. Of these the ports of Greymouth and Hokitika depend entirely upon the mineral wealth of the country immediately behind them. As the production of gold and coal increases, so will their trade improve. Napier and Nelson are the chief ports for the Provinces

of Hawkes Bay and Nelson, and, as such, will always do a fair business, but never in any way rival the four principal ports. Invercargill will, as the south country becomes more thickly peopled, do a considerable business; whilst Timaru and Oamaru will be the representative ports of South Canterbury and North Otago. But trans-oceanic steam communication once established, none of the harbours mentioned in this paragraph will ever be more than local centres, doing a good trade, perhaps, but principally acting as feeders to those larger ports which will prove to be the homes of the large steamers.

Both Timaru and Oamaru are spending large sums in improving their respective roadsteads, and so far as the works have hitherto been completed, the money has been well spent. In both cases the projectors have been bold. In both cases the harbours are being formed by solid breakwaters thrust out bodily into the sea, and creating, with the surrounding cliffs and shores, large expanses of comparatively still and well-protected water. The quality of the soil, and large extent of country which lies behind them, must necessarily cause both harbours to be financially successful. Sufficient protection has already been secured to enable vessels of a certain size to ride at anchor beneath a welcome shelter, while the sea all around is wild and storm-tossed. But works like these cannot be made to order, nor can they while in progress afford that perfect shelter which they will supply when completed. The Port of Timaru, at present almost an open roadstead, has this year been the scene of disasters without parallel in the history of the colony. Within five months[3] four well-found ships

[3] Since the above was written, one, the *City of Perth*, has been got off.

have left their bones upon the shore, the last almost within a stone's throw of the first.

The roadstead possesses an outer and an inner anchorage, both with a good holding bottom; but the seas beat in sometimes with awful force; often, when they do so, the sun may be shining in a bright blue sky, and any wind there is, be almost imperceptible. The rollers on these occasions are evidently the effect of some far storm at sea, and ships in the roadstead swing almost at their mercy. In the absence of winds no vessel could beat out, and must trust to chains and anchors. In January, 1882, the fine ship *City of Cashmere* was riding at a single anchor. Her captain was on shore, the sea being moderate, and no danger apprehended. Suddenly a shackle-pin in the chain gave way, and the vessel was adrift. There being no tug or steamer of any size in port, it was impossible to render any practical assistance as on she drove to her final resting-place. Early in May the *Duke of Sutherland*, a wooden barque with 10,000 sacks of wheat on board, is said to have bumped the bottom; in any case she sprang a leak and soon went down, almost where she lay. People said she was not seaworthy, and that the heavy cargo strained her timbers as she laboured at her anchors. Some of her timbers were clearly rotten, as any one could see, who walked along the beach after they had been thrown on shore. But worse was yet to come. On Sunday, May 14th, a fearful sea came in, and while two ships within the shelter of the breakwater lay safe and quiet, great and well-founded fears arose for two which were riding at the inner anchorage. The sea was running mountains high, and as the angry broken rollers, visible around, and far beyond the two doomed ships, came tumbling in, it seemed impossible a boat could live.

The crews for more than half their time took refuge in the rigging. The decks were swept by heavy seas which carried off the buckets, gratings, binnacles, and all such fittings from the poops. A terrific sea struck the nearer ship broadside on, and smashed the port lifeboat. At times the waves ran eighteen feet in height, their crests being level with the spanker-boom. Cable after cable parted, and at last the good ship *Bienvenue*, abandoned to her fate, rushed upon the rocks. About midday the other ship was left, her cables also having parted; but finding, for a short space longer, a dubious safety in the resistance of a single hawser. It was an anxious time for those on shore as the boats from these two ships put out to sea, so as to bring the waves astern before they fetched the breakwater. Cheer upon cheer arose as on they came and safely reached the shore. All danger to life seemed past and gone. This time at least the waves were cheated of their prey.

But that day had many hours to run, and events were soon to happen which made the bravest shudder as they watched, and hold their breath in very dread. Surely what followed must have been to serve some mighty purpose, or else it could not be. That purpose may have been to stir up many to emulate the few. It may have been to rouse the kindly tear and heartfelt beat of sympathy. It may have been to touch the souls of some untouched before. Or may it not have been to give to those who died a martyr's crown? It must be good to think so. Perhaps the day may come for some of us to do or die; and if it does, to have this thought will make us none less fit to act.

But to our tale. The *City of Perth*, the last ship left, had got her fore-sail set, and, as the harbour-master watched, it seemed to fill. Three vessels fast wedged

on shore, could he but save the fourth? Perhaps a breeze from land would rise, as well it might, and help the ship if only hands were there to work the ropes. His duty was to leave no stone unturned. Quickly a carefully selected crew had manned a whaleboat and started through that broken boiling water towards the vessel. The vessel's captain, seeing what was being attempted, followed in one of the ship's own lifeboats, and lastly three of his crew, either prompted by the love of danger, or wishing to share his fate, rowed out in a smaller boat. Eighteen men in all were once more floating on that treacherous sea. All reached the ship in safety. But in a few short minutes after their arrival she was seen to be adrift. The hawser had at length yielded beneath that fearful strain. Soon three boats were seen to leave her side; the large ones first, the smaller following as best it could. The sea was now at quarter ebb, and from the shoaling of the water doubly dangerous. But still the boats came on. The two first had nearly gained the shelter of the mole, when, by a tremendous broken sea, the third was swamped. Her stern was driven in, and the boat itself was split from end to end. The other boats had quickly turned and sought to save the drowning men. No thought of self, onward they sped as fast as the upheaving seas permitted. One effort more, and all will be comparatively safe. But no, again the sea upreared its head, and, as it fell, buried beneath itself the two devoted crews. By this time the cliffs, the shore, the mole itself, as far as men durst go, were lined with anxious crowds, which, when the wave had spent itself, could see by the light of a brilliant sun those eighteen men, some battling with the waves, some standing in the boats and tearing off their clothes. There was but one boat available in such a

sea, a lifeboat not used for thirteen years. But those on shore are getting mad—mad in their eagerness to save. Quicker almost than pen can write, the lifeboat is in the sea, manned by a sturdy crew, intent to save what can be saved. At one time deep in the hollow wave and lost to view, anon suspended high aloft, she struggles on. She reaches, grasps the drowning men, and puts them safely 'twixt her sheltering crew. But yet not safely, for once more the big seas come rushing on, and, having done their worst, subside, leaving in view of the surging crowd on shore, now almost beside itself, a capsized boat, and worse than all, a crowd of struggling forms battling upon those cruel waves. Eighteen they were before, but twenty-five this time. She righted soon, and her dripping freight have scrambled in once more. Again she is capsized, again the brave fellows struggle up her sides. But even this was not enough! A third time she overturns, and with the same result, until at last wearied, but sulkily defiant, the vicious sea allowed the few whose strength remained to bring a battered remnant safe to land. And then arose such cheers as never had been heard in Timaru before, whilst willing hearts and willing hands were found to lift the poor fellows tenderly on shore. Some, naked and half dead, were lying prostrate in the bottom, whilst others, dazed and bleeding, sat like men who somehow failed to comprehend that death had spared them.

Still there was work for more brave hearts to do. Before the lifeboat came to shore, a surf-boat had been launched and manned. Three more were saved by her, but such a boat in such a sea could do but little, and she with her living freight was anchored in the bay. Again the lifeboat issued forth, manned by another crew, and rescued some. Again she was capsized, but, with the

loss of one, she once more reached the shore. A third time manned, she rescued all who still remained alive; this time without mishap. In all eight lives were lost, brave souls who counted not the cost, but gave their lives a ransom for the saved. Calmly and bravely all went forth. Some saw their comrades landed, bruised, and almost gone, yet undeterred they did their work like men. Does not such conduct show, nay, prove beyond a doubt, that English hands and English hearts are everywhere the same? "England expects every man to do his duty." Such was the rallying cry issued on his day of peril by one of her greatest and her bravest sons. And echo answering echo, from English to Colonial shores, from far Afghanistan to Southern Africa, sustains, and will sustain, the note whilst time shall be.

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A great part of the county of Ashburton, in the province of Canterbury, rests upon a shingly bottom. The plains which stretch from the Kakaia river on the north to the Rangitata river on the south, and from the mountains to the sea, are, for the most part, void of bubbling streams, and afford but little water for either man or beast. Till but a short time since, the settler had to trust to rain alone, and when the tanks ran dry, water was carted at considerable expense from distant rivers. Now all this is greatly changed. The county council has adopted a system of irrigation which, starting from a dam beneath the mountains, issues in a running stream, distributing its gifts through many arteries. The channels were excavated by plough and contract labour. The cost of the work, so far, has been about 24,000*l.*—a trifling sum compared to the great benefits obtained. The value of the land about must rise, and if a sufficient head of water can be obtained, it is difficult to estimate the

results of a more extended system. At present the supply is only sufficient for watering cattle and domestic purposes; but the land itself is of a character most suitable for irrigation—the top spit resting as it does upon a porous subsoil. The Ashburton scheme deserves some notice as showing what may in time be done with some of those more shingly plains which have hitherto proved so uninviting to the farmer. Immense supplies of water daily rush, unchecked, towards the sea, through river-beds, whose banks and all the land beyond lie dry and arid.

The larger towns of New Zealand are for the most part well provided with gas and water; whilst in many cases, an efficient drainage is being proceeded with. Numerous hospitals exist, some twenty-eight in number, and containing more than 1000 beds. In 1878, 4300 persons were admitted as in-patients, whilst 17,000 more received out-door relief. Eight lunatic asylums minister to the wants and comforts of over 1000 patients each year; the proportion of these unfortunates to the white population being about ·23 per cent. To give full details of these and many kindred institutions would be to fill another volume. They are thus lightly touched upon, to show that sickness and misfortune are not forgotten even in a newly peopled land.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE NORTH ISLAND.

The North and South Islands of New Zealand present many characteristic differences, both physical, climatic, and ethnologic. The North Island is not by any means so mountainous as its southern sister, one of its highest peaks being the volcanic crater of Mount Egmont, which attains a height of some 8000 feet. For the most part the hills, which occupy about one-tenth of its actual surface, do not exceed an altitude of 1500 feet. The average rainfall during the year is far greater than in the south, if we except that of Westland on the west coast, where, at Hokitika, the mean reaches the large total of 112 inches. But Auckland with its 45 inches, Taranaki with 58, Napier with 37, and Wellington with 50 inches, far exceed the average of Christchurch with 25, or of Dunedin with 32 inches. This greater rainfall renders the climate more suitable for pastoral than for agricultural purposes, and nature herself directs the energy of the colonists towards a right conclusion.

The North Island is the true home of the native race. In the South Island the natives consist of but some 2000 souls—a quiet and inoffensive people, scattered here and there in small settlements over the country, and pursuing their peaceful avocations in the reserves which have been secured for their use by the colonial government. The

natives in the North Island number some 40,000, and have, from time to time, proved themselves to be as turbulent as those in the South Island have been peaceful. The Maoris are generally well formed,[1] the men attaining an average height of five feet six inches, with trunk and arms longer than those of the ordinary Englishman, but with shorter legs and well-developed calves. In bodily powers and stern endurance the Englishman excels; but, on the other hand, the Maori, owing to his natural build, can carry heavier weights. Like the people of other coloured races, the Maori carries himself with ease, and, when his angrier passions are kept within control, possesses a dignified and graceful presence. His colour is olive brown; his hair most usually black. Like most savages, he is highly superstitious, with a mind easily to be wrought upon, and carried captive by fluent or poetic oratory. He loves discussion, and hangs with rapt attention as the traditionary legends of his race are poured in his willing ear by some great speaker of his tribe. He is brave, yet prone to panic. "By turns open-handed and most liberal, and shamelessly mean and stingy. They have no word or phrase equivalent to gratitude, yet they possess the quality. Grief is with them reduced to a ceremony, and tears are produced at will. They are indolent or energetic by turns. When they do commence a piece of work, they go through it with a will, and in road-making, they exhibit a fair amount of engineering skill."[2]

Little is known about their early history, from whence

[1] "The Story of New Zealand," by Arthur S. Thomson, M.D., Surgeon-Major, 58th Regiment.

[2] "Official Handbook of New Zealand," edited by Sir Julius Vogel. London, 1875.

they came or when. Their own traditions state that long, long years ago they came from an island in the Pacific Ocean, which, in their native tongue, they call Hawaiiki. Driven from his home by the superior forces of another chief, their leader launched his bold canoe and sought for quieter shores. The much-desired rest was found in the North Island. Returning once more, the glowing accounts he gave of the new-found land, induced a larger emigration, and a fleet of many big canoes set forth. Tradition says that from each canoe a tribe was formed. The names of most of these canoes are treasured yet, and, named from chiefs, became the parents of the several tribes.

The native priests believed that this event took place some twenty generations back. When Captain Cook first visited New Zealand, in 1769, he employed as interpreter a native of Tahiti, who, as luck would have it, was able, from the similarity of tongues, to converse quite freely with the people. Probably the Maoris sprang from some Malays, who started in search of certain islands known by them to exist somewhere to the east of Sumatra, and who, as years rolled on and various circumstances rose, advanced from isle to isle, and step by step, until they reached New Zealand. However this may be, the Maoris exhibit a far superior type to that of the Australian savage. Savages though they were, they possessed the rudiments of a faintly reflected civilization similar to that of the natives of Tahiti and Hawaii. They knew, it is said, the eight points of the compass, and had a calendar. Their traditions and songs exhibited a superior development of thought, but what is more remarkable, they had an organized system of mythology, as elaborate as that of Rome and Greece. Many of their customs, such as circumcision, washings,

sacrifices, and views about food were observed to be like those of the ancient Jews. These, like their mythological ideas, must have been derived ages ago from a highly advanced people, as were those of the Mexicans and Peruvians, whom they resemble. While they respected inferior spirits, they believed in and worshipped one God. Though heathens, they were not idolators.[3]

There may be some truth in this, but at the same time it must be remembered that what we have called a "faint reflection of civilization," was very faint indeed, and of little practical utility in the Maori's daily life. Such a description may be said to present the poetic and Homeric side of his character. As a matter of fact, before the advent, in 1814, of the first missionary, a Mr. Marsden from New South Wales, the natives were cannibals, polygamous, slave-owners, addicted to human sacrifices and sorcery, and accustomed to make war upon each other for the sole purpose of filling an empty larder. Even after 1814, the Ngapuki, who first acquired the possession of fire-arms, and are now the most civilized of all the tribes, overran the greater portion of the North Island, slaughtering and eating those who could offer no resistance to their new weapons. This tribe of the Ngapuki is one of the most important, and inhabits that part of the island which is situated to the west and north of Auckland. It early fell under the influence of Christian teaching, and it was so long ago as the year 1840 that its chiefs signed the treaty of Waitangi, by which they acknowledged themselves to be the subjects of the Queen. Although some few years afterwards a portion of the tribe showed signs of opposition, the treaty has, up to the present year been, to all intents and

[3] "Handbook to Australia and New Zealand." S. W. Silver and Co. London, 1874.

purposes, faithfully observed. During a temporary disaffection in 1845, the British forces lost heavily before a native "pa" held by a hostile section. The dead were buried where they fell. Some time afterwards this people, of their own free will, and to prove their friendship to the "Pakeha," raised a small memorial church, and reinterred in the graveyard all that remained of their former foe—a touching kindness for olive-coloured men to do for white; a symbol that the red war-hatchet was buried deeply and for good.

Of late years the most warlike of all the tribes has been that of the Waikatos, known also by the name of Kingites, who occupy a more central portion of the island. With this tribe the troubles began in 1862 and 1864, but the history of that war need not to be repeated. It is an oft-told tale, and it is green in the memory of most. They still possess a king, Tawhaio, of whose present doings and position we shall have to speak a little further on.

The year 1881 once more brought the colony face to face with a "native difficulty"—a difficulty which culminated during its later months. Rightly to understand the nature of the question at issue between the Government and a section of the Maori people, it will be necessary to refer to some of those influences which had for some time past been operating upon the native mind. During the war in 1863 many of the tribes had revolted from the teaching of the missionaries, and forsaken Christianity, which they had, to a greater or less extent, adopted. They invented a religious system of their own, which consisted in "a revival of their old superstitions and beliefs, mixed with a creed perverted from the Old Testament."[1] Hau-hau was the name

[1] Vogel's "Handbook to New Zealand."

given to the new religion, a name suggested by one of the most frequent ejaculations in their prayers. Some of the tribes have since given up Hau-hauism, but others retain it to this day. Te Whiti, the chief instigator and leader of the late movement, combined in his own person the influence of a somewhat powerful chief, and of a self-elected, firmly believed in, Hau-hau Prophet. Again, when the colonial forces, after the withdrawal of the regular troops, had brought the late war to a satisfactory termination, certain of the native lands were confiscated by Government, both as part payment of the expenses which had been incurred, and also to teach the natives a salutary lesson. But although these lands were confiscated, ample reserves were apportioned to the natives, and to-day their tribes possess not only sufficient land for their own purposes, but hold thousands upon thousands of acres which they could utilize, either by sale or lease.

Under those circumstances the chief Te Whiti collected round his whares at Parihaka, a native village towards the west coast, an indiscriminate crowd, consisting not only of his own people, but of hundreds of others gathered from all parts. He asserted to his deluded followers, that in his person dwelt the Trinity, Father, Son, and Holy Ghost. He claimed the power of raising the dead. He prophesied the downfall of the Pakeha, or white man, and declared that the day was not far distant when the Maori power, vested in himself, would reign supreme over the whole country. In order to animate the spirits of his followers, and sustain a belief in his authority, he ordered them to stop the settlers from ploughing on the confiscated lands; to destroy the fences which had been erected; to plant crops on the land from which they had driven the white men; and by erecting fences across their

width to close the roads which were being made under the protection of the constabulary. If order was to be preserved, if the authority of the Government was to be respected, it became necessary for the ministers to make a firm stand. An official messenger was despatched to Te Whiti to point out that such proceedings could not be permitted to continue; that he had no right to molest settlers on confiscated lands; but that he would not be interfered with so long as he confined his people to the reserves which had been allotted to them, and which had long since been pegged out by the Government surveyors. The message failed; Te Whiti was obdurate. An ultimatum was next sent declaring that Government would be prepared to enforce their demands by a certain date, in case those demands had not been previously complied with. Te Whiti quietly put this despatch on one side in the presence of the messenger, and without even glancing at its contents. He seemed determined to adopt a policy of passive resistance, and he probably assured his followers to the very end that the Trinity would make some open manifestation in his favour. At length the Government found it necessary to act. Volunteers were called for, both from the South and North Islands, and in a few days 2000 men were on their way to Parihaka. Te Whiti's camp was surrounded, and both he and an almost equally powerful chief, Tohu, were arrested by the constabulary, while seated amongst his people. A murderer, named Hiroki, who has since expiated his crime upon the scaffold, had found an asylum with Te Whiti, who had refused to give him up; and it was one of the objects of the expedition to secure his person. Unfortunately none of those present were acquainted with the man's appearance, and the difficulty was to identify him. The officer charged with the arrest took a bold,

and, as it turned out, a successful course. Standing before the assembled natives, he shouted, "Hiroki!" no movement in the throng responded to the call. Again he called, "Hiroki!" and still no answer came. A third and last time, looking steadily at the crowd, he said, more determinedly than before, "Hiroki!" This insistance proved too much for Hiroki. Possibly he thought that he was really recognized; possibly that the Pakeha, who had just arrested the prophet of his people, could certainly lay hands on one of the rank and file like himself. In any case, he stepped forth, and the handcuffs were in an instant round his wrists. During the next few days all the stranger natives were escorted back to their several villages by the mounted constabulary, and Parihaka resumed its wonted appearance. Te Whiti and Tohu are now in the South Island, travelling about the country at the Government expense. Their destiny will probably be that of State prisoners, with a considerable amount of latitude.

A question was lately asked by a member from his seat in the House of Commons, about certain Maori crops, which, it was alleged, had been destroyed during the expedition. The only crop destroyed consisted of about forty-eight acres of potatoes which had been planted by the natives on the confiscated land. This was done to show them that they had no power over the land. The crops on their own reserves were left undisturbed, and proved to be so plentiful that they requested permission to obtain assistance from some neighbouring tribes for the purpose of gathering them in.

It seems impossible to imagine how Government could have acted in this matter otherwise than it did. No bloodshed resulted, and the true interests of the natives, so far as these were compatible with the law, were religiously attended to. Whatever the ultimate destiny

of the "brown" man may be, it would appear that, in this instance, at all events, nothing was done which could offend the sensitiveness of the most pronounced philanthropist. We are all the more anxious to place before the public at home a true and unbiassed statement of the causes which led up to, and the events which happened on, this occasion, from the line which has been adopted by one of the New Zealand journals. The *Lyttelton Times* is a paper which readers in England generally suppose to represent the feelings of the Colony, quite as much as the *New York Herald* reflects the opinions prevailing in New York; and in both cases, perhaps, with about the same degree of truth: it has, however, with its weekly reprint the *Canterbury Times*, from the very first, been opposed to the action of the Government, and probably to the opinion of about seven-eighths of the white population of the Colony. The *Lyttelton Times* is a journal which, whilst affording the best commercial and general intelligence of any paper in New Zealand, has a strong political bias, and on the occasion of the late native difficulty it certainly did not represent public opinion here, and it would be deeply to be regretted that an erroneous impression of the dealings of Government with the native tribes should be allowed to obtain a hold on public opinion in England.

Turning from the fortunes of Te Whiti and the Parihaka natives, it will be necessary to say a few words about the present position of the more central tribes and their King Tawhaio. No doubt the energetic action of the Government, with regard to Te Whiti, made a great impression, even upon those natives who had held themselves aloof from the influences of the white man. Instead of continuing a policy of isolation, and a steady refusal to admit surveyors into their country, it is pro-

bable that before long they will apply to Government for assistance in selling, or leasing, considerable portions of their country. Year by year the natives find that the colonists press more closely on their flanks. Year by year they see the white man grow in power, whilst they become more helpless and divided; they see the English clovers overpower the native grass, the native fern and bush fall before the cultivating fire; and what more clear to their poetic but untutored minds than that, in turn, the native race will sink beneath the same relentless doom? The subject of the greatest interest to them, at the present moment, is the land question, and in order that some united action on this point might be determined on, Tawhaio, in May, 1882, summoned the tribes to meet at Whatiwhatihoe ("the breaking of the paddle"), a native settlement, situated some hundred miles to the south of the city of Auckland.

The railway carries the traveller as near to this place as Te Awamutu, passing, in its course, through the eventful battle-fields of '62 and '64. A further drive of six miles brings him to Alexandra, a small town situated on the right bank of the Waipa river. On the opposite, or left bank of the stream, may be seen the new settlement of Whatiwhatihoe. A bridge is now being built to span the river, and here at length we find an English and a Maori town, separated but by a silver streak. The Waipa was bridged over at Alexandra, some seventeen years ago, for the better security of the settlers in the Pirongia district, which stretches from the foot of a mountain of the same name down to the river bank. This bridge, however, is situated a mile below Alexandra, and "Tawhaio thinks that if the Pakeha want to come to him they should come straight. Hence the new bridge. He has also expressed a wish

that the railway should be brought to Alexandra; and it is believed that the completion of the bridge will be followed by permission to survey the line."[5] Alexandra and Whatiwhatihoe may be regarded as neutral townships in a debateable land. Last May both town and Maori settlement were thronged with natives; they slept in huts, in tents, hotels, and empty stores; whilst some, rolled in their rugs, were fain to be content with such shelter as could be obtained from open verandahs. Some days elapsed before the council opened; these King Tawhaio spent in pigeon-shooting, the Native Minister having made him a present of sporting powder. Some amused themselves with athletic sports, and others set to work to improve the condition of the new town. "From their secret recesses," says an eye-witness, "the visitors produced many-coloured articles of European attire, with which to deck themselves; and their costumes, moving between the tents, whares, and numerous camp-fires, produced a scene not easily forgotten." "The southern tribes advanced from their encampment in holiday attire, headed by a flag made in Wanganui, with figures of Tawhaio on it. They were received by the chiefs; and the usual tangi, and songs of welcome followed." The object of the council was, in the first place, to make the native lands inalienable. The native land-law appears to be somewhat doubtful and involved. Beyond the title of the immediate owners, the several tribes, as corporate bodies, for themselves or on behalf of others claim a deferred interest in the soil.[6] The immediate, or sometimes a

[5] Correspondent of the *Canterbury Times* at Whatiwhatihoe, from whose account this and the following extract have been taken.

[6] For further particulars regarding this principle of Maori law, and the means proposed by the present Government to arrest native

portion of the immediate owners, have, in many cases, been registered as sole owners in the Native Land Court—a court instituted by Government for the protection of the natives, and to give titles to land in the North Island. Under the titles so obtained some of these properties have been sold, without, as the chiefs assert, the mutual concurrence of all the owners recognized by tribal usage. To add to the difficulties of the situation, the natives have no confidence in each other. The council passes, say, a resolution by a large majority to the effect that all land sales, surveys, and registrations shall be suspended until Parliament shall have decided upon some course of procedure which shall meet the views of the tribes. But the people return home, and continue to traffic with their land as before. In fact some of the loudest supporters of the resolution in council were at the very time negotiating with land speculators; and those tribes who have sold most do not hesitate to declare that the contrast of their own condition with that of the Kingites, who have not sold, leaves no temptation to exchange their own policy for that of Tawhaio.

The habits of the Maori must not be confounded with those of the North American Indian. In his savage state the Maori possessed no happy hunting-grounds—perhaps because there was no game to slay. The Indian was essentially a hunter, roaming at his pleasure over the boundless prairie or through the pathless forest. To confine him within a restricted area—to make him put his hunter's hand to the spade or plough, would be to invite a certain and a pining death; in fact no course could be adopted so fitted to exterminate his race. The

dissatisfaction with regard to the existing state of affairs, see Appendix, pp. 363, 364.

Maori, on the other hand, when he works at all, works in his potato-field or patch of maize; he takes kindly to sheep; he is, so to speak, a naturally born tiller of the soil; he knows something of the value of money, and what that money can be made to buy. Nor does he pine when living on his farm and cultivating the necessaries of life. There is abundant room in the North Island both to support the tribes in luxury and comfort, and add to their present wealth by means of sales or leases of the surplus blocks which they can never enjoy or utilize. One essential point must be and is provided for, namely, that sufficient land be left for native wants. If this be done, the Maori will be far more comfortably situated than he was before the advent of the white man. Instead of tribal wars, instead of cannibalism and human sacrifice, those natives who survive will dwell in happy villages, with smiling homes and peaceful farms.

It has often been a doubtful point with some how far the white is justified in taking the "brown" man's land. Experience tends to show the doing so to be inevitable. It appears to be a necessary phase of what may be called, for the purpose of our argument, "the Darwinian process of development." It is asserted by those who hold the Darwinian theory, that all existing types have descended from one, or, at all events, from very few forms of life; that species living at any time must be the result of a gradual modification of pre-existing species; and that the essence of this doctrine is "the survival of the fittest." If nature teaches this, why then let people learn from nature, and, without pressing with too hard measure upon those weaker than themselves, help forward the development of that superior life which nature tells us is inevitable. But, putting on one side the much-vexed theory of "natural selection" (which after all is

but a philosophic train of thought, seeking to explain "what is," but unable to go behind "what was," and therefore starting but from the middle rung of the ladder),[7] all history proves that man, supported by

[7] [*And therefore starting but from the middle rung of the ladder.*] It seems scarcely fitting to make such a direct assertion, without indicating, in as few words as possible, the train of thought which led to its adoption. The proposition that the three angles of an equilateral triangle are together equal to two right angles, is capable of positive proof. We begin with the theorem, we follow with our demonstration, and finally close with the triumphant Q.E.D. We have carried our proposition from its commencement to its very end, and defy the world to find a flaw in our consequents. But the theory of "natural selection" cannot begin with the beginning, neither can it end with the ending. Let us start at the very lowest order of species, or even from the very elements of oxygen, nitrogen, hydrogen, and carbon: it can but begin to mould itself upon a pre-existence—an existence too, or state of being, controlled by certain laws. An existence so controlled cannot be a thing of chance; it indicates direct creation. Let the process of selection be continued (for we cannot arbitrarily arrest the system short of this) until it has evolved the human frame, that most perfect mechanical formation of all things living. Even then, at the pole most opposite it stops, arrested by the soul. Allow for one moment that "selection" may produce the perfect from the imperfect, still it must fail to make an altogether fresh creation. Admit that from mere instinct it can develop reason, that from the braying of an ass it can construct the human voice, from what arcanum can it form the soul? At the end, as at the beginning, it has to yield itself the captive of creation. Inorganic matter is controlled by chemical affinities; organic laws forbid the mule to propagate its kind; and to admit a "natural selection" to be the origin of species, is but to depose one miracle to enthrone another in its place. If creation then originated matter, far simpler for itself to perfect what it has begun, than that unnecessary and complex means should interpose. Could light and heat have sprung into existence by "selection" from the glacial period? Or rather were they not a separate creation? Why make two systems where but one will do—the first not to be explained away, the next incapable of proof? Far better to believe one grand idea, the which with patient steps was consummated, and where the separate organisms were each in turn created, the one more perfect than the last, yet part

superior art and knowledge, will tread upon the necks of those less gifted than himself. As the ancient Celts were driven to the western confines of the Old World; as the Incas yielded to the warriors brought from Spain; as the red men were displaced by almost countless throngs of white—so must the Maori yield in turn. And who can say these things should not be? What could the disunited efforts of these deposed ones have accomplished, when compared with what has been effected? If some few have suffered, more—nay, countless millions more—have gained immeasurably. The question is not confined to individual loss, but embraces the good of myriads of mankind.

The Maori then must yield in turn; and, though he has been extolled by many writers for his noble qualities, they do not seem powerful enough to save him from the universal effects of civilization when brought into contact with the savage. The Maori has relinquished cannibalism, polygamy, slavery, and many of his former superstitions, but in doing so he seems to have lost much of his former spirit and native energy. He has lost what made his life, without replacing it with higher aims. He is left more helpless than he was before. Strange fatality! that Christianity and civilization, which tend to develop the forces of more favoured peoples, should, when their first principles are faintly comprehended by the savage, produce a contrary effect to what they were intended to beget. It seems as though when faith in ancient creeds and patriarchal customs is once destroyed, all else becomes unstable. It is in fact far easier to destroy than to rebuild. Men to advance in science, art, or literary skill, require to study, and mould their

of one great whole, and placed upon the stage as the great scheme was fitted to receive them.

work upon the accumulated toil of former generations. Take this away, and all is blank. And so it is with savage men. They learn that all they knew before is wrong. They see a better way, but how that better way has been built up, they cannot grasp. Their minds in this respect a blank—old prejudices gone, they yield themselves as willing serfs to every passion of the hour. It is not that missionary labour and modern civilization do not bear some fruits. Far from it; a nation may suffer as a whole, while individuals of it may doubtless gain. A man of higher calibre than the crowd may be improved, and possibly his family; but it is beyond the power of any culture to make black white, or turn a nation's destiny at one fell swoop from barbarous habits to robes of spotless light. It is generally believed that the Maoris are decreasing in numbers. At times adopting the European mode of dress and habits, and again reverting to the native blanket and exposure, their bodies become more susceptible to climatic influences. Drink has laid its curse on many, and it is feared that phthisis and increased mortality will be the end. But this is not universally the case. Many there are, hard working and industrious folks, whose children, and children's children will, it may be hoped, live to inherit those lands which are now their parents' property.

The mineral wealth of the North Island is confined to the Province of Auckland, where gold, coal, iron, and copper are to be found, together with small quantities of silver and lead. The two former are, as already mentioned, worked by several companies. Part of Auckland and the greater portion of the three other provinces consist of volcanic formations and alluvial deposits. Large districts in the centre of the island are composed of nothing but extensive beds of loose friable pumice-

stone, lava, and ashes. The whole of this part of the country must frequently have been in a most active state of volcanic excitement, the more recent deposits resting as they do upon older layers of the same material. Boiling springs and smoking solfataras yet exist, while Mount Tongariro and Ruapahu, although intermittent in their action, may still be considered as active craters. Further to the north, and about thirty miles south of Tauranga, are lakes Rotorua and Rotomahana, theatres of vast volcanic throes. For miles on miles around complete sterility exists, whilst near the lakes, warm and often boiling springs flow over grand siliceous terraces, the chief of which is 300 feet in length at its base, with an altitude of 150 feet. Below are numerous hollows, filled with warm water, and forming natural baths. The surface of the terraces presents those varying hues well known to the frequenters of Vesuvius and other mountains in eruption, but here, owing to moisture from the spray, the white, the pink, the blue, are brighter. Some of the light volcanic soils of Auckland are easily worked, and much preferred by colonists to the cold clay marls, which crop out here and there throughout the entire district. Probably these latter will, as years go on, and when more time and labour are bestowed upon them, prove highly reproductive. The soil on the west coast and well inland, from the Mokau river in the north to Wanganui in the south, is formed of decomposed calcareous marls, mixed with remains of lava streams, and débris of tufaceous rocks. It is of the most valuable character, perhaps indeed some of the best land to be found in the southern hemisphere, and near to Wanganui sells as high as any in the colony. In the province of Hawke's Bay, situate on the east coast, the soil below the slate range which forms the backbone of the country

is also a calcareous marl, intersected with shingle beds, and, in places, with considerable blocks of rich alluvial deposit. These last are valuable for agricultural purposes; the remainder of the province affords some of the best possible pasturing land. Stretching for miles round Wellington, the country is considerably broken, and mostly covered with the native bush. The principal trees are the totara, matai, rimu, kahikatea, and rata. The country lying between the Tararua range and the east coast, alone contains nearly 600 square miles of forest, composed of good timber for the saw-mills. Bush exists to a greater or less extent in all the provinces. In 1873 it was estimated that nearly forty-five per cent. of the province of Wellington, was covered with bush, nearly sixty-six per cent. of Taranki, eight per cent. of Hawke's Bay, and seven per cent. of Auckland; or in round numbers, that more than 6,000,000 acres of forest existed in the North Island.[8] The timber trade is therefore likely to be of considerable importance for many years to come.

We have already referred to the Kauri[9] (*Damnara Australis*), the finest forest-tree in New Zealand, as existing only in the province of Auckland. It attains a height of from 120 to 160 feet, with a clear stem sometimes of 80 or 100 feet, before branching out. Its diameter at the base, is from ten to twenty feet. The timber is greatly esteemed for masts, spars, and deck planking. It is of great durability, and the variety known as mottled kauri is especially valuable as a

[8] The quantity of forest in the South Island is almost identical, but it is chiefly confined to the provinces of Nelson and Westland, and the central ranges.

[9] This account of New Zealand trees is taken from "A Descriptive List of the principal Forest Trees of New Zealand," by Dr. Hector.

furniture wood. It is the principal timber exported from New Zealand. The Totara (*Podocarpus totara*) is a lofty spreading tree, from 60 to 120 feet in height, and from four to ten feet in diameter. The timber is durable and clean grained, somewhat like cedar wood, works easily, and is suitable for carpenters' work, railway sleepers, piles, and other uses of a similar nature. Post and rail fences made from it are expected to last from forty to fifty years. The Maoris used it to make their largest canoes, and for the palisades of their pas. The Matai (*Podocarpus spicata*), or black pine, grows eighty feet high, and from two to four feet in diameter. The wood is close grained and durable. It is used for piles, bed-plates for machinery, flooring, sleepers, and fencing. It ceases to grow in any situation over 1500 feet above the level of the sea. The Rimu (*Dacrydium cupressinum*), or red pine, is pyramidal, with weeping branches. It grows from 80 to 130 feet high, with a diameter of from two to six feet. Its habit renders it ornamental as well as useful. The wood is clear grained, heavy, and solid. It is much used for joisting, planking, and general building purposes, but it is liable to decay when exposed to wet. It is highly esteemed by the upholsterer. It was from the juice of this pine that Captain Cook manufactured his spruce beer. The Hakikatea (*Podocarpus dacrydoides*), or white pine, is a fine tree, from 100 to 150 feet high, and about four feet in diameter. The timber is white and tough, but soft, and will not bear exposure. A variety of this tree known as yellow pine is largely sawn in Nelson, and considered to be a durable building wood. The Rata (*Metrosideros lucida*), or ironwood, is a very ornamental tree, standing from thirty to sixty feet high, and with a diameter of from two to ten feet. It forms a valuable cabinet wood

of a dark red colour, and has been much used for knees and timbers in ship-building. It grows rarely in the north, but abundantly on the west coast of the South Island; but another species of Rata (*Metrosideros robusta*) grows freely in the north, and is equally dense and durable. From its bolder growth it is to be obtained of much larger dimensions than the former. There is yet another valuable tree, which is confined to Auckland and is extensively used in ship-building—the Pohutukawa (*Metrosideros tomentosa*). It has numerous massive arms, and grows from thirty to sixty feet in height, with a trunk of from two to four feet in diameter. The wood is in great demand for the knees and framework of vessels, having a natural bend; it bears a large red flower which blossoms about Christmas. There are many other varieties of timber, but the above-named are the most valuable and important of the forest-trees.

With a surface so thickly covered with forest scrub and fern as is that of the North Island, it is not difficult to realize the obstacles which must be encountered by the cultivator. A great portion of the country will undoubtedly, for many years to come, continue to give employment to the bushmen. It is estimated, however, that there are about 12,000,000 acres suitable for agriculture, a quantity even greater than that in the South Island; but of this a considerable portion is still in the hands of the Maoris, and of the rest a large percentage requires both time and expenditure before it can be made available for the production of grain crops. The native fern, which grows to the height of a man's shoulder, covers the surface of the country, and forms at present a great drawback to any but the pastoral interest. The system of cultivation pursued is to burn the fern during the later summer months, and sow broadcast upon the

ashes, clovers and English grasses. With favourable autumn and early winter rains these grow apace, and when the old fern-roots shoot their fresh and tender fronds, cattle are turned upon the land to eat them off. This must be repeated until the fern seems actually subdued. The young grasses are soon stocked with sheep, and, where the land is exceptionally good, support from five to six per acre the twelve months through. But it is an open question whether so much stock can practically be carried with profit. Too many sheep being constantly on the ground, the land gets poisoned, and though the grass may spring with great rapidity, the sheep want change, and do not thrive upon it. So much fern root is apt to make the land sour when ploughed for cereals, and without the aid of lime it may take several ploughings to make it really sweet. The fern is difficult to kill, and farms which are left deserted, present in a few short months all the appearance of virgin land. If it is desired to make a pasture in the bush, the trees, where not previously cleared for timber, are felled to about three feet from the ground and left, for a time, until the sap has lost its rawness. Advantage is then taken of fine summer weather, and the mass, including the undergrowth, is set on fire. After the first fierceness of the flames has spent itself, the trunks and heavier limbs go smouldering on, perhaps for months. When all signs of fire have disappeared, and the ash-bed is sufficiently cool, grasses are sown upon it broadcast. It is evident that these clearings can only be used as pasture-lands, and that it would be a work of too much labour and expense either to plough to any great extent between the stumps, or harvest any white crops which might possibly be sown. It must take years and many generations to render this class of land fit for the plough. To this day

blackened and weather-beaten stumps may be seen on many a clearing in the older-peopled Eastern States of North America; and the farmer who has migrated from New Jersey to Illinois or Minnesota, retains, while cultivating the deep rich loam of the Western prairies a lively recollection of the time when the stumps and roots of his native State hampered his plough and increased the cost of labour. Owing to the greater breadth of land which he can till, he finds it to be more profitable to sell his "corn" at $30 the bushel out West, than at $80 in the old home. Many plans have been attempted for clearing roots and stumps from off the land, and much unnecessary labour has been thrown away. The Americans now pierce the stumps with augur-holes and fill them with coarse petroleum; then, when the wood is thoroughly saturated, they burn it, roots and all. But even this process takes both time and labour. The above difficulties which beset the farmer in the North Island, will in some measure account for the greater development of agriculture which has taken place in Canterbury and Otago. By the Government returns, taken from a census made in February, 1882, and just now published, it will be found in that year there were but 93,130 acres under grain and root crop in the North, against 908,865 acres in the South Island; whilst the quantity of sown grasses in the North amounted to 2,235,427 acres against 1,697,271 acres in the South. When considering the relative amount of land occupied by English grasses in the two islands it must be recollected, that of the land sown down in the North Island, only 521,822 acres had been under the plough, against 1,246,593 in the South, proving in the latter case that by far the greater part of the land laid down to English grass had been under crop, and is but resting. The

greater portion of it, then, must be included among the agricultural rather than the purely pastoral lands. Again, looking only at the several quantities of land occupied by English grasses in the two islands, it would seem as if the North was in a position to carry a larger amount of cattle and sheep. But it would be erroneous to run away with this idea. The greater preponderance of English grasses in the North is owing to the land in its natural state being unable to support stock. The South Island possesses 10,000,000 acres of land covered with native grasses, and capable of supporting a good quality of Merino sheep. Against this class of land the central volcanic regions of the North Island can offer but little competition. The result is as might be expected. In 1882 the South Island carried 8,867,921 sheep, against returns of 4,024,973 from the North; and 310,783 head of cattle against 287,191. Other industries are in a somewhat similar position. The aggregate import and export trade of the South Island, for the two years 1880 and 1881, exceeded that of the North by over sixty-nine per cent.,[1] whilst the gold exported during the same period was but 318,117*l.* from the North, as against 1,989,925*l.* from the South. No doubt the mere fact of a large body of natives occupying the very centre and some of the best land in the country, has had an important influence in retarding what would otherwise have been a more rapid development. But, in order that full justice may be done to the country, two main trunk lines of railway are necessary, where at present only fragmentary portions are in existence; the one to draw the fertile country situated on the west coast, the other to traverse the eastern and northern portions of the island, passing on its way through Napier, the termini of both to meet in the north at

[1] See Import and Export Tables, Appendix, Table D.

Auckland, and in the south at Wellington. The great obstacle which exists to the completion of these lines is, that they must run through the Maori country, and until to-day the natives have been unwilling to permit the Government surveyors to take the necessary levels in those districts over which they possess supreme control. Civilization exists, then, but as a shallow fringe surrounding a central Maori population. Through traffic, under such circumstances, is impossible, and the principal means of communication between the different settlements must inevitably be by sea. It is to be hoped that this state of things will soon be rectified, and better intercommunication by land opened up. Still the fact must remain that the North Island, with the exception of the district round Auckland, is devoid of mineral wealth; that the country in many parts is more or less unsuited for agriculture, and that for years to come the main portion of the island will have to depend upon a pastoral interest and the resources of its forests. Neither of these industries can support so large a population as the manufacturing, shipping, and agricultural interests; and although it may be safely assumed that the North will make great strides in the future, there is nothing to warrant the belief that for years to come, if ever, she can hope to outstrip the Southern Island in the race for wealth.

But this being understood, there is nothing to deter the intending settler from taking up land in any of her four provinces with every prospect of success. As a rule land is far cheaper in the north[2] than in the south, possibly because the means of communication are somewhat restricted, and the markets generally do not offer equally good facilities for the sale of produce. But these

[2] See Appendix.

drawbacks are likely, before long, to be greatly mitigated, and to those with whom capital is an object, or who, possessed of capital, do not mind roughing it for a few years, the North Island will probably offer better chances than the South. Possibly it was the influence of these or somewhat similar ideas which caused Messrs. Grant and Foster, the delegates lately sent out by a body of Lincolnshire farmers, to take up a considerable block of land in the North Island for the purpose of settling it with old-country agriculturists. A respected correspondent of the *Scotsman*, writing to that paper from Canada, and speaking about Manitoba, says, "It is good policy for a man with four or five stalwart sons, who wish to become farmers, to sell 100 acres in Ontario, and with the proceeds to buy 1000 or 1200 acres of as good land in one block in the North-West Territory. But why should not old-country emigrants go to these newer provinces, too? Some of them, I believe, should, if they have but little to invest in real estate. That little will go further than here. . . . . It is not wise, however, for emigrants from the old country, who are possessed of means, to go. In Ontario they will have churches, schools, associates, and travelling facilities equal to those which they have enjoyed at home."

This is sound advice; the case is clearly stated, and is applicable to all new countries. There will always be a certain number who, from necessity or choice, prefer the rougher life. There will be others possessed of means, and perhaps family men, who, although from some cause or another they consider it advisable to emigrate, would rather not adopt the necessarily hard life of the pioneer settler. Fortunately the world lies open, and offers to each class a deliberate choice. It must not be supposed that in the North Island a settler would have to encounter

the same hardships from climatic or other causes which he would have to face in Manitoba, the North-West Territory, or in Ontario itself. On the other hand, if he prefers to buy cheap land in a thinly-peopled district, he must not expect the same advantages and conveniences as would have fallen to his lot under more favourable circumstances. It is needless to say that these remarks do not apply to Auckland, Wellington, or the districts immediately adjacent to them. These offer as great advantages as any in the colony. The warning must be understood as relating only to those more remote spots, where the settler would be likely to pick up cheap blocks.

In some parts of the island there is considerable difficulty, owing to the absence of stone, to find material with which to metal the roads. Pumice-stone, lava, and disintegrated rock have been called into requisition, and partly answer the purpose; yet the roads are anything but delightful in wet and dusty weather. But the charming climate and attractive scenery, which almost everywhere arrests the eye, must always act as a great inducement to the intending settler, and fully make up for many deficiencies. The mild air of Auckland is peculiarly adapted to those troubled with asthma, and is recommended by physicians in cases of lung disease. The warm springs of Rotorua are celebrated for the beneficial influence which they have upon rheumatism and other affections of a similar nature. But whatever fascination natural vapour-baths may have for others, to the sound in wind and limb, or to the lover of nature, the beautiful scenery of the country will offer the greatest attraction. It possesses an irresistible power over the senses, hardly to be equalled in the South Island, unless, perhaps, in the province of Nelson, or amongst the lakes of the southern Alps. Waterfalls and boiling springs, woods and hills,

dales and valleys, shining rivers and rapid torrents, the graceful fern and many flowering shrubs, a warming sun and bright blue sky, combine to form a whole, from which the artist may select studies well worthy of his canvas, or where the dreamer yet may dream. Nature is ever grand in all its forms, but never perhaps so wondrously displays its dreaded majesty as in the storm at sea—its purity and faint reflex of paradise, as high among the Alpine snows the still clear ether bids the soul look heavenwards—its great creative power, as in the virgin forest, where the tall trees throw but a gentler light upon the wondrous life below. So in New Zealand, what sight more lovely than the lofty pines stretching their deep green foliage high in air, their massive trunks clothed with bright mosses and parasitic ferns, the trailing *Smilax* pendent from their arms; beneath, an undergrowth of pure white clematis, twining itself round the matted fuchsia; while from the tangled mass the tall tree-fern, raising its feathery head some forty feet from earth, stands forth and adds depth to the ever-grateful shade. Unbroken stillness reigns, save where the rippling stream murmurs along its rocky bed, or drops in seething foam o'er some sharp ledge. The whole suggests a forest in Brazil save for the want of busy life. We miss the humming-bird and bright-winged butterfly, and all the feathery tribe, blithe with their gay and matchless plumage; the sound of the hammer-headed frog, and all the endless whiz and buzz which, as the night draws near, starts from a midday rest. But of lovely New Zealand we may say: "whatsoe'er thy birth, thou wert a beautiful thought, and softly bodied forth."

CHAPTER XV.

"HOW WE ARE GOVERNED."

THIS is the title of a small but comprehensive volume, compiled some years ago by Albany Fonblanque the younger, which gives a digest of the British Constitution in a compendious form. Commencing with the Sovereign, as head of the State, it descends through both Houses of Parliament and the courts of law, to the *ultima Thule* of local government. Concise in form, though necessarily abbreviated in detail, it gave to those who did not care to dive more deeply into the subject, a fair insight into the method of government and legal procedure prevailing in a country which was their home either through the accident of birth or by voluntary adoption. Obsolete, no doubt, as part of its contents may have become, after the lapse of more than twenty years, the title still indicates the answer to a question which must ever remain a matter of interest to dwellers in every land, and to all who would study the different aspects that government has assumed in the many states which constitute the civilized portion of the globe. On this account it would appear to furnish a suitable heading for a chapter which proposes to deal with the constitutional and legislative machinery of New Zealand.

The theory of a representative government is necessarily of a dual character. It is the antithesis of a

despotism, under which the whole function of administration emanates from the volition of an individual, or possibly of a small body of individuals appointed by and acting under his authority—responsible not to the people, but to their autocratic chief. On the other hand, a representative government proceeds directly from the people, who delegate to a certain number of its members an authority which is in reality still their own. It follows that those in power are answerable for their doings to the body which has raised them above the common crowd. When they cease to satisfy the requirements of that body, they must give place to men who are more likely to prove in accord with the popular sympathies. Representative government, then, is the most elastic of all systems of government, for it acts and re-acts within itself. It is directly antagonistic to all schemes of imperial or communistic despotism, which would endeavour to make all things subservient to their own purposes. Capable of recognizing a sovereign, it cannot, from its very essence, recognize the divine right of kings.

It is hardly necessary to state that the government of New Zealand is both representative and constitutional, and is closely modelled upon lines which it has inherited from the experience of the old country. It enjoys a vice-king in the governor appointed by her Majesty. It possesses a House of Lords in its Legislative Council, and it has its House of Representatives, elected by popular suffrage, and corresponding to the House of Commons of Great Britain and Ireland. In one respect the colonies have been fortunate. The liberties of the Commons in the old world have been built up, step by step, through many centuries of hard-won and oftentimes dubious successes. Australasia, on the contrary, was peopled at a time when the right of a nation to defend

its liberties had become a recognized principle. Consequently government in the colonies started from a point at which in the old world it had arrived only after a long and persistent struggle. In these new colonies the great fear was lest, the power of the masses having become acknowledged, the tendency might be too democratic—lest, freed from the restraints and usages of an older society, the new political instinct should incline to the very verge of a tyrannous communism, and place too great a preponderance of power in the hands of the uneducated classes, to the exclusion of the better informed, and the undoubted rights of property. Whether this tendency has been partially developed in some of the colonies or not, may be an open question; but so far as New Zealand is concerned the fear has proved to be almost entirely groundless. Large freehold properties and the comparatively high value of land have tended to people the country with men who possess a due appreciation of the responsibilities attached to their position. Herein the colony closely resembles England, the mother country—more closely, perhaps, than some of the other offshoots which have from time to time boldly detached themselves from her parent shores. And perhaps it is fortunate that it is so. No person who has travelled in the United States can fail to be struck with the small responsibility assumed by the better classes with regard to both the national and local systems of government. The reason for this much to be regretted phenomenon must be sought in a variety of causes. First among them may be reckoned an almost universal belief entertained by the more conservative of the people, that it is useless to oppose their better principles to the clamour of the multitude, supported as this is by the overwhelming weight of manhood suffrage. Often have the

voices of thinking Americans, influenced by sad experience, been raised to warn the old country, which is still regarded by them with an affectionate interest, never to sink so low as to adopt manhood suffrage pure and unadulterated. "Whatever you do," they say, "however low you fix your legal qualification, let every voter be a stake-holder of some sort. Do not follow our example and give to every one of your citizens, be he worthy or be he not worthy, the power to vote, until it be proved that he has some direct interest in property, however small that interest may be. Let your voter have something to conserve, but do not admit a man to the management of public affairs, solely on the ground that he possesses an existence—an existence which he did nothing to create, and who, since it was bestowed, has done nothing to make himself fitted to meddle with the concerns of others more provident than himself." A second reason may be found in the fact that educated Americans are essentially dwellers in big cities. They take no interest in country pursuits; and except in the suburbs of some large town, or during the warmer months on the shores of some favourite lake or river, the country knows them not. Consequently they fail in the individuality and sense of personal responsibility that appear to be almost spontaneous in those persons who live on large estates. Always occupied at the desk or counting-house, their chief interest is confined to business and the more immediate family circle. The numerous tenants and dependents of a large landed proprietor are to them unknown quantities, and their absence precludes that association of class with class which is a marked feature in the old country, and helps to form a connecting link between the highest person in the realm and the poorest peasant in the cottage.

Charity no doubt exists, and that to a very large extent; but it generally takes the expression of a duty devolving on one large body to alleviate the distresses of another large body. A self-sacrificing anxiety, at the expense of personal inclination, for the wants of individuals, although doubtlessly existing in many a sympathetic breast, and however operative in a few cases, has not hitherto been reduced to a national system. Men occupied with business and private intimacies, have a general tendency to leave extraneous duties to the care of those whose work it is to attend to them. A sentiment prevails that such matters will right themselves without any necessity for personal inconvenience. And lastly, although Americans are imbued with a deeply-rooted sense of the present and future greatness of the Union, and will, under pressure, proceed to any lengths for its maintenance, their daily life is one rather of disunion than union. For internal purposes the country is composed of a mass of independent States hanging loosely together. A fraudulent bankrupt in New York has but to cross by ferry-boat to New Jersey to be safe from the arm of the New York State authorities; nor can he be arrested until all the paraphernalia of New Jersey law has been invoked to assist the officers. By the time this is done the fellow may be in Kentucky, Virginia, or anywhere else. A man may have a lawful wife in one State, and yet be divorced from her in another. Boston considers New York society too fast, and New York looks upon that of Boston as composed of pedants. Baltimore esteems both of inferior blood, and holds them wanting in the highest refinement. The West looks on the East as upon a power which taxes the farmer for the purpose of enriching the manufacturer. The South—well, the South would side with that party which promised the

best terms. These, and many other minor causes, tend to deflect the natural energy of the American character back upon itself, and deter it from entering the general arena of political contest. "There is," says Canon Liddon, in one of his sermons delivered before the University of Oxford, "no single feature of the circumstances of the United States of America upon which the most intelligent and devoted friends of the Great Republic look with more unconcealed alarm than the withdrawal from public life of almost the whole of the educated class, and the consequent abandonment of some of the highest and most responsible places in the State to earnest but uncultivated fanatics, or to mere adventurers. It will be an evil day for England if the natural leaders of the people forego their duties because the course of modern politics is unwelcome to them. Mistakes of this magnitude are made by an instructed and governing class only once. There are *vestigia nulla retrorsum;* the ground once lost is irrecoverable." It would be an evil day for England, it would be an evil day for New Zealand, were this to be. Fortunately the die has not yet been cast, and the educated class, in both countries, continues to take an active interest in the welfare of the people and the State.

The real power of a representative government proceeding as it does from the people, it will be desirable in the first place to ascertain of what elements that people consists. New Zealand will be found to be essentially English in its composition. Of the 489,933 persons living in the country (exclusive of Maoris) in April, 1881, 467,998, or 95½ per cent., were either colonial-born, natives of Great Britain, or from the British Possessions. The remaining 4½ per cent. were drawn from Europe, America, China, and a few from other

countries. Of the total number, 80½ per cent. were Protestants of various denominations, 14 per cent. were Roman Catholics, and 5½ per cent. Jews, Pagans, unspecified, or objecting to state. These statistics would indicate, so far as can be gathered from analytical data, the respectability of the great mass of the colonists—an inference which is fully borne out by actual experience. The Irish element is limited to about 10 per cent. of the total population, and of this a fair proportion comes from the province of Ulster, still further reducing the power of this excitable people as a means of disturbance. Perhaps it is as well for the colony that the great stream of emigration from the Emerald Isle has set in towards America. It is not because the people of Ireland may not have been suffering for years injustice at the hands of a few, or perhaps many, landed proprietors, and have been misunderstood, maybe, by successive Cabinets in London; it is not because a necessity for reform may exist in that country, that the peasant from the south of Ireland is mistrusted wherever he goes. But the mistrust is fostered and created by the cold-blooded means which he has adopted to remedy his position. It is fostered by that character of agrarian and political assassin, which he has many times assumed before the eyes of the civilized world. He is mistrusted because, as Mr. Justin McCarthy says, "When the Irish peasant throws off altogether the guidance of religion, he is apt to rush to worse extravagances and excesses than most other men." The yeomen of England who had held their lands through a long line of ancestry, and who were after the late French war, in many parts of the country, ruined by their previous extravagance and the great fall which took place in agricultural produce, had as much right to assassinate

the landlords who succeeded to their paternal acres as the Irish peasant of to-day. But did they do so? The provocation was similar in all respects, but the results were different, owing to the divergence of the two characters. Agrarian outrages in Ireland are, it is to be feared, the result of the national character and want of education, rather than of mere status. Two years ago a small body of Irish endeavoured to get up faction fights in Christchurch and Timaru, and one day they did considerable damage by their rioting in the former place. Special constables were at once called out, and these senseless displays of party feeling immediately put a stop to. The ringleaders on that occasion were punished with a firm, but necessary, severity. The people in New Zealand are determined not to permit a renewal of those faction fights and murders which are a disgrace to the present century in Ireland. It is devoutly to be hoped that the disaffected from the south of Ireland will continue to turn their attention to America as a proper field in which to display their exuberant spirits, and that only the hard-working and industrious portion of the people will direct their steps hitherwards.

The tendency of political feeling in New Zealand will be found very similar to that which exists at home. The country districts have a decided leaning towards Conservatism, whilst perhaps the various boroughs hold opinions more nearly approaching to those of the Liberal party. Of course in both cases it is only a question of the balance of public opinion, for in both cases there must needs be a substantial minority. Political parties are not openly classified as being either Liberal or Conservative. The moment, for example, that a public print suggests the Ministry to represent the Conservative interest, the opposition journals fly at the unfortu-

nate delinquent, and declare that whatever may be the case at home no such thing as Conservatism or Liberalism exists out here. They may not in name, but they do in reality, and that is the important point. It may suit the purposes of some persons to put such distinctions on one side, and assert that the two parties are nothing more than Ministerialists and Opposition; that parties simply consist of those "in" and those "out;" but the question still remains, is the assertion sound, or does it go deeply enough into the matter? It may suit a candidate standing before the electors to declare that he represents no party, and that his chief object will be to further the interests of the district should it do him the honour to return him as its representative; but for all that, candidates in most cases are returned by the party of moderation, or the party of greater progression—that is, either by the more Conservative or more Liberal elements of the population. It must be so. Conservatism and Liberalism are, so to speak, implanted in a man's nature at the time of his birth. The influence which has been at work to produce this result may be traced as permeating the same family for many successive and preceding generations. Mere physical temperament is often sufficient to send a person into one or other of the two camps; but no educated man with any respect for himself would be content to rest his political belief upon the opinion of a single and removable minister. True, the masses must ever be influenced by the opinions circulating around them, rather than by an inherited creed, or originality of judgment; but even so, they must always remain the supporters of one of the two principles as advocated by their local leaders. In proof of the permanency of hereditary prejudices, it may safely be affirmed that the simplicity of life, the freedom of thought, and earnestness of

purpose at present characteristic of the people in the Eastern States of the Union can be traced to the asceticism, the distorted sectarianism, and stern determination which constituted the watchwords of a Puritan ancestry: that the uniform rows of red-brick houses in Philadelphia, with their white door "stoops" and white painted window-frames, owe their existence to the prim formality of the Quaker founders of the city: and that all the attributes of the cavaliers, modified by distance and surrounding impressions, can be recognized in the blue blood and genial manners of the families of Virginia and Maryland. If such be the case in America, after the lapse of more than a couple of centuries, and under many disturbing influences, is it not evident that families —when migrating—must carry with them to a new country the same distinctions which were previously exhibited in the old home. Conservative or Liberal at home are necessarily more or less Conservative or Liberal in the colony. The theatre of their life may be changed; the spirit which animates the scene is still operative. Much of the landed interest in the colony is sprung from the class which represents the same interest at home—cadets, maybe, of old county families, or offshoots from the farming and pastoral population of England and Scotland. Instead of investing their hundreds or their thousands in the old country, they considered New Zealand a better field in which to employ their comparatively small capital. Their personal or inherited predilections remain unchanged. The natural drift of New Zealand country society is no doubt towards Conservatism, and probably year by year as the country becomes more thickly covered with landed proprietors the tendency will be intensified. It has been the fashion amongst a certain class of writers

and politicians to assign the wish to stand well in the books of their Conservative landlords as the sole reason for the Conservatism of the tenant farmers. County constituencies, as a rule, have returned Conservative members. Where they have not done so, it has frequently been owing to the numerous voters on the outskirts of some town being able to turn the scale against the more rural districts of that division of the county. A reason must in the general nature of things be found for the conservatism of counties, and this is supposed to exist in the servility of the tenant farmer. But is it not equally allowable to imagine, nay, more probable, that country life and country pursuits are ever at variance with the more active energies and more democratic leanings of large bodies of men collected in great centres? That where, in the former case, a congruous occupation and well-to-do mediocrity are content with what is, the busier life and more actively developed thought of the towns have inclined towards the Liberal party—a party which is almost universally expected to originate the greatest social improvements. This would seem quite as likely as that a large section of the English people was so subservient as to bury its political convictions beneath the sheltering ægis of some duke or marquis. Possibly under the pressure of continued agricultural disaster old prejudices may be forgotten, and relief sought in a temporary abandonment of long-cherished opinions, but this does not affect the present argument. It is well known that the disappointed and sour frequently become iconoclasts and revolutionary democrats. But, on the other hand, how often is it observed that many, who in middle life have become landed proprietors, lose the intenseness of their former liberalism. The same inclination is no doubt operating in New Zealand.

When persons become possessed of broad acres and extensive freeholds upon which they have sunk much capital, and expended much consideration; when they derive their very subsistence from the soil, and find themselves in consequence of their estates, or farms, treated with greater consideration by their neighbours, can they, whatever their previous convictions, conscientiously continue to support the extreme Radical party, which is for ever crying, "Land, land, more land; give us land, for the land belongs to the people!"

No doubt a considerable majority of the better classes in the towns belong to the Conservative, or, at all events, more moderate section of the electors. But here as at home the boroughs, and especially the small ones, are apt to return men of more or less advanced opinions as representatives. Happily, the lowest title to a vote in New Zealand is a residential qualification of six months, and although this may seem to extend the franchise quite low enough, it forms in reality a considerable safeguard. A large percentage of the working-people are migratory, and instead of being six months in a given place, more probably seldom stay longer than a month or six weeks. Their names are consequently not upon the register. Fortunately, many of the largest landed proprietors, and other persons of good position are not averse to entering the House, and encountering the worry of a protracted election. If not at all times numerically superior to those who approach somewhat more nearly the character of political adventurers, they undoubtedly possess considerable weight; and on grave occasions prove themselves most useful members of the legislature. It follows that people generally interest themselves in elections, and the committees of the different candidates embrace the names of many of the

most respected residents in the several counties and boroughs. The following are the qualifications which enable a man who has attained the age of twenty-one, and who is a born or naturalized British subject, to exercise a vote for the election of members for the House of Representatives, subject to placing his name on the register:—

The having held for six months, and of his own right, and not as a trustee, a freehold to the value of 25*l.*, or having resided for one year in the colony and in the electoral district for which he claims to vote during the six months immediately preceding the registration of his vote. Every male Maori of the age of twenty-one, who is upon the ratepayers' roll of the district in which he claims to vote, or who is seized in severalty of a freehold to the value of 25*l.*, is entitled to be registered as an elector.

Any person thus qualified to vote can be elected a member of the House, unless disqualified by crime, bankruptcy, or paid office (other than political) under government. Four native members are elected to the Lower House by the tribes as representatives of the Maori people. The Houses meet once a year, and the Acts passed by them are subject to the veto, and in a few cases require the direct sanction of the Queen. Previously to 1876 the two islands were divided into nine provinces, each with their separate Provincial Council, but in that year the Provincial form of government was abandoned, and the supreme executive power vested in the Governor and the Upper and Lower Chambers.

The Legislative Council consists of over fifty members, who are appointed by the Governor for life, and enjoy the prefix of "Honourable." Their duties are in all respects similar to those of the House of Lords, and necessitate but little further description. Although, like all similar

bodies, containing an admixture of every shade of political opinion, the Council, taken as a whole, is a most respectable chamber, and occasionally exercises a useful control by preventing the sometimes hurriedly considered and ill-digested proposals of the Lower House from becoming law without further consideration.

But it is the House of Representatives which possesses the real power, and holds in its hands the purse-strings of the country. It is constructed of ninety-five members, each member representing as nearly as possible an equal number of electors. The Cabinet at present consists of six ministers, who between them hold the following offices, namely, those of Attorney-General, Colonial Treasurer, and Colonial Secretary, Ministries of Lands and Immigration, Mines, Native Affairs, Justice, Education, and Public Works; Commissionerships of Customs, Stamp Duties, and Telegraphs, and the Postmaster-Generalship. The House usually sits for about three months out of the twelve. The honorarium paid to members is uncertain, and depends upon an annual vote of the House. It is very desirable that the pay, whatever it is, should be kept at a sum just sufficient to meet travelling and other necessary expenses; and it is to be sincerely hoped that the House will never be prevailed upon to create a fixed salary, to be paid annually to each member. Such a course would soon conduce to the formation of a body of political adventurers, similar to that which exists at Washington; persons who would make a trade of their profession, and consider the interests of the country to be a matter of secondary importance.

One great drawback to the present system of government is that, as a rule, the colony gets too much law. Each session it is forcibly reminded of that wonderful

flood of legislation which deluged and confounded the old country after the general election of 1868. Act after Act is passed, by the Houses at Wellington, with a rapidity which speaks volumes for the energy of its representatives, but will fail to recommend them to posterity as mirrors of good statesmanship. For instance, an Act was passed last session entitled, "The Gaming and Lotteries Act, 1881." The measure was so framed that it became illegal for a party of friends to enjoy the innocent amusement of a five-shilling sweep at any of the numerous race meetings which are held throughout the country. As the natural result of such provoking legislation a member brought in a bill at the earliest opportunity which had for its sole object, "That the Gaming and Lotteries Act, 1881, is hereby repealed." The same session inflicted upon the people a totally new Licensing Act under which the licensing powers were taken out of the hands of the licensing justices and placed in those of committees to be elected by the several districts as specified in the Act. Under this Act the publicans in many instances can make hole-and-corner committees more or less amenable to their own purposes. Power is also given to the magistrates to make it a finable offence for the publicans to supply a glass of liquor to those whom the Bench considers to indulge too freely. No matter whether the person happens to be drunk or sober, the publican, whether he be cognizant of his identity or not, is bound to refuse him a glass of beer. But drunkenness cannot be put down after this fashion. One of the proclaimed, who was more than half seas over at the time, was asked how he managed to get his supplies. The answer was as might be expected, "Oh! I get what I want from Dunedin." The Act will be evaded as easily as the 37th and 38th Vict., c. 49, section 10,

which excepts the *bonâ-fide* traveller from the prohibited hours clauses. Under this Act any person who wishes to drink all Sunday has but to take a third-class ticket on any of the numerous railways which intersect the old country, and travel a distance of anything over three miles. After this exhausting performance, he may enjoy his "half-and-half," or his "hot-with," or "cold-without" to his heart's content, and in perfect safety.

The House holds two sittings on four days out of the seven, and the activity often displayed in that short space, coupled with the enormous amount of work disposed of, either presupposes a perfect mastery of the matter in hand, or the most lamentable ignorance regarding subjects which include some of the most prominent questions of the day. To suppose ninety-five men, in eight sittings, to be capable of carrying the second readings of seven bills of real importance, and after considerable debate, and of adjourning the debate on an eighth, and ordering a ninth to be read that day six months, besides sitting four times in committee on two other bills, is to suppose an aptitude for parliamentary business which can hardly be claimed by the House of Commons. During the same week time was also found for introducing and reading a first time thirteen other bills, and for numerous questions asked and replied to. When it is understood that these bills contained amongst others such important ones as an "Eight Hours' Bill," "An Education Act Amendment Bill," "A Corrupt Practices Amendment Act," "A West Coast Peace Preservation Act," "An Industrial Schools Bill," "A Native Reserves Bill," "An Act to amend the Resident Magistrates Act, 1867," "A Debtor and Creditors Act," "An Act to amend the Gaming and Lotteries Act," "The Corrupt Practices Prevention

Act," and "The Licensing Act," the most brilliant imagination becomes too feeble adequately to picture the chaos to which those ninety-five brains must have been reduced by the end of the eighth sitting. The above bills evidently deal with some of the most important interests of the colony, but they are hurried through the House frequently "on the voices," as if members were in perpetual fear of missing the next day's Derby, or were subject to heavy penalties should a certain amount of business not be completed during the eight sittings of these four days. No wonder that the lawyers shake their heads, and groan over the results of a session which has produced sixty or more new Acts for their immediate consideration. No wonder that the half-million of persons who comprise the white population of the country throw up hands, and exclaim, "Enough! let us have peace at any price." Supposing sixty-two Acts to be passed each session, the allowance would be one Act to every member and a half, exclusive of the Speaker. It is evident that some members must work hard, but the majority are unable to grasp the intention and consequences of the greater part of the measures introduced, so rapidly do they follow one upon the other, and with insufficient notice from the several introducers. Were the House to meet every year for the purposes of receiving the ministerial statements, and voting the necessary supplies, and be permitted to carry legislative enactments every third year, the country would most probably be better, and certainly more systematically governed.

But if there be one influence more than another that tends to demoralize that independent spirit which ought to be the pride of all popularly-elected assemblies, it is to be found in the Public Works policy.

The moment the rumour of a new loan arises from afar, the chief business of the members consists in doing what they can to obtain the largest possible amount of the spoil for the districts by which they have been returned. To do this the more effectually, they divide themselves, says one of the daily papers, "into local groups for the purpose of playing a grand game of beggar my neighbour for the next loan. There is an Otago Committee, and a Canterbury and Westland Committee, and a Gold Fields Committee, and we suppose all the other divisions of the colony have made or will make similar arrangements for grabbing their share when the time comes. . . . . This is the first step. The next, of course, is the log-rolling, which is a feature of American legislation. One of the committee will agree with another, or with several others, to help each other to get the money demanded by each, and thus the Legislature, instead of consisting of an assembly of public representatives, met to do what is best for the public welfare, will degenerate into a band of conspirators, whose sole object will be to promote the interests of localities at the expense of the public welfare." To some, such a picture may appear overdrawn and too highly coloured; but in truth it only describes, in somewhat forcible language, a system which is well known to exist. There is only one method for Government to pursue with any hope of success, if they would rectify the vicious system which prevails with regard to all new loans. Under present circumstances a loan is apt to be squandered by giving a sop here and a sop there in order to secure the block votes of these self-constituted but important committees. The demands of these being satisfied, no money perhaps remains for what may be considered public works of the first im-

portance. A deep-rooted evil such as this requires drastic remedies. The only course to pursue both for the credit, and in the real interests of the country, would be for Government to declare that it requires powers from Parliament to enable it to borrow money for the completion of certain works of colonial importance (such as the trunk railways in the North and South Islands), but that beyond this it is not prepared to undertake any further liabilities. Having assumed this position, in which it would be supported by an influential following, let it be prepared to stand or fall by the policy which it has adopted. To borrow further large sums at the present time for other than the purposes mentioned would be an error of the very greatest magnitude. But the finances of the colony are, it is argued by some, in a prosperous condition, and show a satisfactory surplus, and therefore the time is arrived when a new loan may with safety be floated. Do those who advocate such a policy reflect upon the reasons which have caused the finances to be so far satisfactory? Have the monetary disturbances of the last few years left so small an impression upon their minds as to have permitted them already to forget that these desirable results have been brought about almost solely by increased taxation? Can they not realize that the conduct for all true economists to pursue is to reduce the extra taxes which have been imposed as speedily as can be done with safety, and relieve the people from those burdens which the recently-increased customs and other duties have caused to press somewhat heavily on a portion of the community? It is an axiom of political economy that, in order to secure the greatest prosperity for any State, the cost of living within its boundaries should be reduced to the lowest figure consistent with the re-

quirements of the revenue. Let the Government at Wellington only comprehend and act upon this most valuable truth, and New Zealand will advance on its road towards prosperity with untrammelled steps. But let it continue to pile up loan on the top of loan, and it will bring the country into difficulties as great as those of '78 and '79, if not greater than they were.

The present ministry, of which the Honourable Frederick Whitaker is Premier, is, with one or two unimportant exceptions, the same ministry which, under the Premiership of Sir John Hall, K.C.M.G., has for the last three years steered the country so deftly forth from the shoals and quicksands by which it was most closely beset about the middle of the year 1879. The policy which the Government had to pursue when first taking office was necessarily one of a most thankless character. With an empty treasury, with liabilities incurred to the extent of three millions on a loan which still had to be floated, and with an extravagant administration in most departments of the State, it was a difficult task to convert such discordant elements into something like order. To arrest public works suddenly when in an unfinished state, thus discharging a large number of labourers; to cease for a period from attempting to raise any further loans; to dismiss some officials and reduce the salaries of others; and to impose an additional burden of taxation upon the people at a time when they could ill afford it—these were the duties which lay in the path of the ministers, and formed part of the heritage bequeathed to them by their predecessors. Before any one of those difficulties many a Government has before now fallen prone. Safely to have weathered them all proves the gravity of the occasion, the patience of the people, and the well-understood efforts of the ministry. The supre-

macy of political parties is ever precarious. To-day an unappreciated trifle, a little cloud scarce noticed in the sky—to-morrow, public opinion stirred to its very depths, a dense black thunder-cloud breaking overhead. As yet the trifle remains a trifle; the little cloud retains its form, and the ministry which has done so much for good still holds the people's confidence. If we seem to sing the praises of the Hall Administration somewhat loudly, it is because whatever faults it may have had, it stood a bulwark to the country during many days of grave anxiety. Neither is it a ministry of mushroom growth, but one that has already stood the brunt of three sessions, and after a general election enters upon a fourth with a more powerful majority at its back than on any previous occasion.

The present Government appears to consider a loan as hardly necessary; and perhaps if it relied entirely upon its own judgment, would leave matters as they are. But at this point parliamentary tactics step in, and influenced no doubt by the state of parties in Wellington, it has been considered that a loan of three millions spread over the next three years, and to be expended at the rate of one million a year, will neither injure the credit of the colony, nor cause any inconvenience in the way of interest to the local treasury. At the same time it may serve to close the mouths of the more importunate beggars throughout the country. But to bring forward a loan of even such moderate proportions is not the true policy of the hour, and would appear to be based rather on grounds of present expediency than on those of a more perfectly digested statesmanship. It would look as if the ministry, doubtful of the principle of contracting further liabilities, was at the same time unwilling to break through established traditions.

"The country has always been in the habit of borrowing for public works," it seems to argue, "and therefore it will expect to do so again now that the finances are in a sound position. Therefore, although we feel pretty sure that the best course to adopt would be to reduce taxation and leave a fresh loan in abeyance, it may be a better policy for us to take a middle course and endeavour to make matters smooth for all parties." But it remains to be seen whether so small a loan as one of three millions will satisfy the more greedy among the applicants, or yet prevent dissatisfaction among those who are in favour of a decrease in taxation. Such, in a few words, would appear to be the history of the proposed loan, which if it does not do much good can do but little harm, except to principles. It almost looks as if the feeling of the country were in a state of transition, and as if it were gradually becoming recognized that further large borrowings by the State on account of public works were both undesirable and unnecessary; but as if at the same time there was a hesitancy before adopting a thorough change of policy, at all events, before the real temper of the people had been tested by a further small loan. Perhaps it is right it should be so. Changes of too sudden a character are rarely good and often of no permanency, and a ministry may be pardoned for supporting a doubtful policy at a time when the people themselves are divided upon the best course to be pursued. It may be said to be doing much towards directing the masses to a right conclusion when in place of lavish extravagance it but recommends comparative moderation. Although the conduct of the ministry with regard to the new loan may be open to criticism, the financial success which it has achieved must always entitle it to the thanks of the community.

The total ordinary expenditure of the colony for the year 1881-82 was 3,278,820*l.*, or 49,759*l.* less than the estimates. The total ordinary revenue for the same year was 3,488,170*l.*, or 190,520*l.* in excess of the estimates. The surplus with which the Government had to deal was consequently 209,350*l.* It must be explained that it is only very recently the proceeds of the land sales for the year have been kept distinct from ordinary revenue. The above income and expenditure therefore show most clearly the solvent position of the colony, as they do not take into consideration any sales of land which have been made during the past twelve months. The new form of accounts is a step in the right direction, and places the ordinary and yearly finances upon a more solid foundation than was previously the case. Out of the above expenditure 1,499,318*l.* was a charge for interest and *sinking fund.* In view of the utterly erroneous assertion which has lately appeared in the columns of the London press, to the effect that the sinking funds of the colonial loans are merely "book entries," and that no money is really set aside on their account, it may be as well, once and for all, to give to such a misleading statement, so far as it refers to New Zealand, a distinct and flat denial. When, we may well ask, will the writers of such articles endeavour to master their subjects?

Perhaps to-day we may read an article, in the worst of styles from its initial sentence to its final syllable, asserting amongst other things "that Austra-American slang and impudence go by plainer names in Belgravia than in Ballarat." To-morrow another leading daily in substance informs its readers that "Colonial loans are all moonshine; that the interest may be paid for a few years longer, but that then the smash will come and the holders of the stock will never see a farthing of their

money. Really, good people at home, how much longer will you believe such impudent fabrications, if indeed you even now believe them? If some prefer to swallow British spirit, and flatter themselves that it is old and unadulterated cognac, let them do so. Let them believe these and anything else that pleases them, but in that case let them not claim ignorance, and deny that they have been taught the emptiness of their fond convictions. It may be affirmed on the evidence of the Colonial Treasurer that 2,057,242*l.* had on March 31st, 1881, already accrued as a sinking fund towards the extinction of the public debt of this colony,[1] and the Government could no more misappropriate these moneys without exposure than could the Chancellor of the Exchequer misapply a million of the public revenue of the United Kingdom to his private uses. The estimated expenditure for the year 1882-83 is 3,478,639*l.*; the estimated revenue 3,597,183*l.* The former is increased by certain items of a temporary and accidental nature being charged to the expenditure of the year. The latter is swelled by the surplus of last year, leaving a balance in favour of revenue for 1882-83 of 118,644*l.* We have already given it as our opinion that the Colonial Treasurer is making a mistake with regard to the disposal of the surplus at his command. What he is actually doing is to continue taxation at its present level in order to provide a visible sum to meet the interest on the proposed loan. In the meantime the surplus already accrued is to be devoted to accidentals. What he ought to have done was to reduce taxation by 200,000*l.*, or by six per cent. per annum.

The amount standing at the credit of 61,054 depositors in the savings banks of the colony was on the 31st day of December, 1881, 1,549,515*l.*, being at the rate of

[1] See Appendix, Table L.

25*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.* to the credit of each account. Thinking that some of the depositors might be glad of a more permanent form of investment, if one could be provided, which would be at the same time secure and easily convertible, the Government propose to bring in a bill authorizing the issue at par of a loan for 250,000*l.*, the principal and interest of which would be payable in New Zealand only. It is proposed to issue the loan in the form of inscribed stock, so that investors may at any time obtain bonds, payable to bearer, of a value of 10*l.* and upwards. The stock is to bear rate at an interest not exceeding 5 per cent. A government life insurance department has been in existence since 1870, and, during the eleven years ending June, 1881, 16,900 policies have been issued, insuring upwards of 5,800,000*l.*, or an annual average of 1500 policies, insuring fully half a million each year. An industrial branch was opened in March, 1882, for the purpose of enabling persons to insure their lives for 3*l.* and upwards by means of weekly payments, and, during the thirteen weeks which have since elapsed, over 2100 of these industrial policies have been issued. The average amount insured for all ages is about 25*l.*, and for adult lives about 55*l.* per policy. To facilitate the payment of small quarterly premiums, cards are about to be provided on which postage stamps can be affixed, until the amount of the quarterly premium is reached. They can then be deposited in the nearest post-office, and credit will be given for the sum which they represent. Arrangements are also being made by which post-office savings bank depositors may make payments for premiums out of their deposits by instructing postmasters to that effect. It will appear from the above particulars that the Administration is following very closely upon the steps of recent legislation at home

in all that regards creating facilities for the people to save money. It must be conceded that this is the best of all policies for a Government to attempt. The greater the inducements, the more the people will be prevailed upon to put by. The more they put by, the more prosperous the average condition of the inhabitants of any country will become. In our opinion, the Government which aims at inducing its people to be careful in small things is performing a better work than it could do by entering upon a more extended course of brilliant and comprehensive legislation. "All savings," says Smiles in his work on "Thrift," "are made up of little things. 'Many a little makes a mickle.' 'Many a penny makes a pound.' 'A penny saved is the seed of pounds saved.' And pounds saved mean comfort, plenty, wealth, and independence."

Passing from parliamentary to local government we shall find the country to be divided into sixty-three counties; thirty-two of these are situated in the North and thirty-one in the South Island. The particular interests of these counties are attended to by Councils, whose members are elected by voters on the county roll of ratepayers. There are also road-boards elected for the purpose of attending to the formation of new and the conservation of old roads, and also of repairing and constructing bridges in their several districts. In both these cases the members are elected by a system of cumulative voting—a system which gives a greater number of votes in proportion to the amount of rates paid. A person being rated up to 50*l.* possesses one vote, up to 100*l.* two votes; but in no instance can an individual claim more than five votes for any one district. The power of these bodies is confined to the duties above-named, to striking rates for local purposes;

administering the funds of the several districts, and otherwise ordering and superintending all such operations as come within their jurisdiction. Considering that the duties of the councils and boards are confined to local matters, and the administration of local funds, it would seem but fair that the person who owns 5000 acres, and who consequently pays higher rates, should possess more influence than one who occupies but 500 acres. The cumulative vote does not altogether meet the views of the small proprietor with radical sympathies. Such a one would naturally prefer a closer approximation to manhood suffrage. Attempts have been made to replace the cumulative by the single vote, but hitherto unsuccessfully; nor does there appear any immediate probability of the present system being changed. It seldom happens that any but persons in a respectable position are elected to fulfil these duties. Except under occasional and peculiar circumstances moderate men appear to possess the confidence of the constituencies.

All boroughs possess a mayor and council, who act under certain powers given by Parliament, and are in all essentials similar to such bodies at home. The police force is under the immediate control of Government, and, taken as a whole, forms a fine body of men, well set-up and smart in their personal appearance. Unless their looks belie them, many of the mounted force have seen what people are accustomed to call better days. Evidently there are many old soldiers in the ranks.

The civil and criminal law is based upon that of the old country, and where no colonial Act exists to the contrary, English law and the decisions of the judges and courts at home are recognized in New Zealand. It is almost needless to say that justice is impartially administered, and offers no opportunity to the rich to

oppress his weaker neighbour. The courts present an open field to all comers, and cases are decided, as far as possible, on their merits. In all the larger towns and more important districts, the bench is presided over by resident, or, as they are called at home, stipendiary, magistrates, who either dispose of cases summarily or remit them to the district and supreme courts. Resident magistrates are assisted in their duties by justices of the peace, who are appointed by the governor, and answer to the county magistrates at home, except that they are qualified to serve all over the country, and are not restricted in their duties to a single county or riding. The Supreme Court, which sits in each of the more important centres every six months, may be compared to the assizes in England, and is presided over by a judge who has the assistance of grand, common, and special juries. A power of appeal lies from the Supreme Court to the Bench of Judges in Wellington. This latter is the highest court existing in New Zealand, and is composed of all the judges, three of whom constitute a quorum. In all cases where the value in dispute exceeds the sum of 500*l.*, a final appeal may be made from the decision of the judges to the Privy Council at home. There is also a district court presided over by district judges, who rank lower than the judges of the Supreme Court. District courts appear to possess somewhat the same powers as would the county courts and quarter sessions if their separate jurisdictions were combined. These courts can adjudicate in all cases where the amount at issue does not exceed 200*l.*, and can try all criminal cases in which the extreme penalty does not entail more than seven years' penal servitude. Sittings are held every three months, provided that no sitting clashes with one of the supreme courts, in which case no

district court is held. An appeal from the decision of the district judges may be taken before the judges in Wellington. The district court is of value in facilitating a partial gaol delivery every three months, and it also enables a speedier adjustment of many civil disputes than would be the case were the sittings of the Supreme Court to be the only means of obtaining judicial redress. The judges are all appointed by Government, and are addressed as "Your Honour." They do not proceed on circuit, but each judge presides over the same courts every year.

Probably this is a mistake, and both judges and Bar would be benefited by a system of rotation. In New Zealand the professions of solicitor and barrister are united, and it seems difficult to understand what obstacle can exist to the same principle being everywhere adopted. To the client it would mean the payment of but one set of fees and the avoidance of unnecessary and expensive consultations. It would possess another advantage, namely, that the same lawyer, who had already thoroughly mastered the details of a case, would be the one to conduct it in court. To be able to practise as a solicitor, the student has first to pass what is called a General Knowledge Examination, which, in almost all respects, is similar to that required by the New Zealand University for a B.A. degree. This having been successfully encountered, an examination in law follows, upon passing which the student is entitled to practise as a solicitor in the Supreme Court. On the payment of certain fees, but without further examination, any solicitor has the right to practise as a barrister. A sitting of the Supreme Court, with the judge and counsel in regulation wigs and black gowns, the jury in their box, the well-dressed policemen scattered here and there

about the building, the usher in white gloves, and with wand of office, crying, as he sees occasion, "Si-lence, si-lence in the Court!" and an attentive public occupying the body of the hall, presents a scene well calculated to uphold the majesty of the law. Up to the present the number of criminal cases in proportion to the population is not excessive. Crime among a well-fed, well-to-do people, like that of New Zealand, ought indeed to be reduced to a very low point. Where it exists it should be severely punished, for there is but little cause for its commission. The lawyers find a better practice in the many civil cases, and in the business attaching to mortgages, bills of sale, and conveyances, which abound in all parts of the colony. In a country where so much borrowing and lending prevails, where auctioneers often find money to carry on the butcher and a financial company funds to carry on the farmer, where land is frequently changing hands and large properties are being continually cut up for sale—the services of the legal profession are perpetually called into requisition. The business of old-established and well-trusted firms is both lucrative and of a high character. To be solicitors to a good bank, a large financial company, a few large landed proprietors, a county council, and numerous other clients of lesser calibre, presents an opportunity for making money which may well offer attractions to the aspirant for both chamber practice and forensic honours.

In order to form the requisite juries, the names of persons on the ratepayers' roll are placed in a ballot-box, and continue to be drawn until the requisite number has been placed upon the list. Although, after a person has served as a special or common juryman, he is exempt for a certain period from again serving in the same

capacity, it not unfrequently happens that he is called upon, both as a special and common juryman, at the same sitting of the court. This seems to be somewhat unfair, but under the present system it is unavoidable. Grand juries are chosen from a separate list, which is supposed to be restricted to magistrates and the better class of colonists. But even so, and where it might be expected that we should find a better conception of the duties of grand jurymen, the latter often show a propensity to try the cases brought before them, instead of confining their inquiries to the finding of a true bill, or otherwise, on *primâ facie* evidence. Common juries, as elsewhere, occasionally rise superior to the law, and their verdicts on such occasions appear to be controlled by what they think the law should be, rather than by what it is. Generally they give a prisoner the benefit of a doubt. The private sentiment of each member of the jury would, perhaps, be found to run more or less as follows:—"Poor devil, he may be guilty, but let us give him one more chance." Moreover, it may frequently be observed that, by some process of ratiocination best known to itself, a common jury deals more severely with an offence committed against an individual, than with one directed against the Government or a public institution. A hazy feeling seems to possess the public mind that corporate bodies constitute a legitimate prey; whilst for a man to injure an individual, either in his person or pocket, entails a grave offence. But such reasoning is not confined to the colonies. We well remember a brother magistrate at home once asking why we had committed a certain prisoner to the Quarter Sessions, and although explaining that the evidence justified the committal, our friend, whilst admitting the fact, persisted that the county had been put to a needless expense,

on the ground that a jury would not convict. "They never do in such cases," he affirmed; and he was right; the prisoner was acquitted, in face of the strongest evidence. The same sort of open-handed, irrational justice must have animated that worthy fellow, who was heard to say, when advocating the rights of the unfortunate but noble "claimant," "I don't care whether he's Orton or whether he's Tichborne; but it's a shame to keep a man out of his money."

CHAPTER XVI.

EDUCATION.

No department of thought opens up a more interesting and important field for the investigation of the student, than does the theory or practice of a better system of education. It must ever be interesting to watch the youthful intellect, struggling under difficulties, gradually to expand itself beneath the influence of a teacher's care. It must ever be a matter of the greatest importance that care should be confided to proper guardians, because upon it the prosperity and happiness of the nearest succeeding generation mainly depend. Ever since the foundation of the colony New Zealand has recognized the important influence which education exerts over the well-being of a people, and numerous have been the acts and ordinances passed both by the Provincial Councils in earlier days, and at Wellington in more recent times, for the better carrying out of the intentions of the Legislature in this respect. As a result of all that has been done, education is now almost entirely under Government control. It is primarily supported out of the ordinary revenue of the colony, and supplemented by rents annually accruing from land which had, from time to time, been allocated for that purpose. It has, to all intents, become a state institution, and confines itself exclusively to the teaching of secular subjects.

The various denominations possess their Sunday-schools, but the Bible is excluded from all public schools; and to such an extent are the religious prejudices of the sects which constitute our population considered, that no child whose parents and guardians object is compelled to be present at the teaching of history. The prevailing system may be said to have done away with what might most appositely be called free trade in education, and to have utterly ignored the sound old maxim that "Nobody is so well taught as by himself." For this has been substituted a curriculum, cut and dried under the authority of a Minister of Public Instruction. Like the church in Roman Catholic countries, it confines the attention of its students to books that bear the seal of its own autocracy. It has created standards of its own which, from the absence of any healthy competition, tend to direct the energies both of teacher and scholars to a level mediocrity, rather than to stimulate them towards those higher paths of learning which recognize no hypothetic goal either in the present or the future. England possesses her Board Schools, and her Elementary Education Act, but these, when fairly estimated, are only subsidiary to and form but a small part of the entire scheme of education prevailing throughout the country. In New Zealand this is not so. A few private schools and one or two independent public schools there may be, but these bear no comparison either in numbers or influence to the schools under Government control. Persons living in the old country are apt to look upon a governmental and compulsory system as a means of educating the children of the poor, or of parents unwilling to undertake the responsibility which has devolved upon them. Government at home does not interfere with the families of the middle or upper classes, or bring its authority to

bear directly upon the liberties of those who adopt their own system. For such, there are private schools, middle-class schools, and public schools. It is almost impossible for people in such a position to realize what is entailed by the absorption of all private enterprise in one great scheme, and by the destruction of all competition amongst independent schools for the sake of a national uniformity. This centralization having been obtained, education in New Zealand approaches more nearly to that of Germany than to that of England. If in practice it is not quite so despotic, the cause for a greater elasticity must be sought, not in the system, but in the impossibility of compelling an English-speaking people to submit to the arbitrary discipline of State Imperialism. Education, as it exists, may be said to be tolerated rather than loved by a considerable section of the colonists, and even by many of its most ardent supporters the absence of Biblical instruction is considered a blot upon the otherwise bright shield of their favourite system.

A governmental and free education possesses under certain circumstances some advantages, but at the same time it has many drawbacks. The chief advantage which it offers is, that it places the education of their children within reach of the poorest of the citizens. But even so, it can but bring the horse to water and may be unable to make him drink. It may say to parents, avail yourselves of the free system which the country has provided for your families; but it cannot make them appreciate their good fortune, if they will not do so. It may assert that Government has taken the whole weight of education upon its shoulders, that it stands *in loco parentis*, and yet be powerless to make a parent feel that the State can educate his children better than he could do if left to his own resources. We must candidly admit that, on

this point, our sympathies are with the parent. It has never yet been satisfactorily proved that parental government by a State is the most advantageous form of government either in educational or other matters. We believe that a parental government is apt to dwarf the growth of a nation rather than to improve and expand its capacities; and that its interference with the most cherished liberties of the subject tends to destroy individuality, and to produce a people consisting of rank and file rather than of men qualified to lead. The best Government is probably the one which, whilst upholding law and morality, in so far as these relate to outer life and public convenience, leaves to the people the inviolate control of private matters and family relations. Under a free constitution it is difficult to admit the right of any interference in those more private and domestic arrangements which in the greater number of cases are likely to be better administered by human instincts and parental affection.

The advocates and opponents of free and compulsory education have both had their say, and the compulsory system has become law in several countries. Perhaps it is as yet too early in the day to admit of a final and altogether satisfactory decision with regard to its merits being arrived at; but some idea may be formed, by what has been already done, as to whither it may ultimately tend. When, however, it is attempted critically to examine the effects which any system of education produces upon the habits of a people, difficulties beset the inquirer at the first stage of his appointed task. It is decidedly a matter of some perplexity to separate the actual results of any system from other results which may have originated in extraneous and inconsequential causes. When considering the condition of society at a

given period, it will be necessary to determine how far that condition has been promoted by any system of education, and how far it has been fostered by climatic, ethnologic, and other influences. As a general rule the advocates of a free and secular education assert for it all the restraining influences of religion and morality. Educate the people, they argue, and you eliminate crime; or, if you do not altogether do so, you greatly reduce its power for evil. This line of argument would seem altogether a misapprehension of cause and effect. History proves beyond a doubt that the highest culture affords no security against the overwhelming influences of the master-passions, and that some of the vilest crimes which dye the pages of the past were committed by those who should be guiltless had this theory been correct. On the other hand it must be acknowledged, by those that have mixed with working-men, that they are often the most trustworthy and exemplary who can neither read nor write. When it is pretended that secular education is in itself powerful to minimize crime and control the common disorders incident to this or any age, it is as well calmly to consider what the system has done in the past, and what it is likely to do in the future. Germany affords an example of the purely compulsory and secular system, entirely supported and controlled by the paternal authority of its Government. England again has provided a compulsory system for those only who either cannot or will not look after the interests of their children in this respect. Although some people will no doubt be found to dissent from such a conclusion, the system in Germany would seem to have that levelling tendency which has been previously alluded to. The youth of the country is educated at the Government elementary and high schools. Parents are not in the habit of consider-

ing which school offers the greatest intellectual advantages to their children, but send them to the one which from its situation secures the greatest convenience. All schools are more or less alike, and the training in each is more or less identical, being under Government control and supported by the rates. Private volition is the exception, and the system produces a large body of fairly trained men suitable enough for subordinate positions, but in few cases with the ambition or individual courage requisite to ensure success in the higher walks of life. The people emigrate each year in large numbers, but form no new settlements of their own, becoming instead gradually merged in the populations of other countries. They would not appear to possess the self-reliance and enterprise necessary to make an Australia, a Canada, or another United States. They prefer at a smaller risk to become respectable units in a country already enjoying its towns and railroads, its established laws and mercantile pursuits; in a country, that is, where everything is ready to the hand, and in which by steady industry they may hope to acquire a respectable competence. As when young they were dependent upon a paternal government for the measure of education which they received, so in after-life the same feeling of dependence predisposes them to follow in the footsteps of those who have already overcome the natural difficulties of original settlement. They would rather do this than become themselves explorers and pioneers. Followed into the tracks of commerce the German will still be found an imitator rather than an originator. Imitation sherry, imitation beer, imitation Hollands, imitation Havannas, and imitation trade-marks form, or have formed, a considerable portion of the commerce of the country; whilst those merchants who rise above the ordinary level are more

intent upon saving some small invoice charge than on initiating a new commercial policy. Any who have studied the exhaustive works which have issued from a German University press, must have felt a certain sinking at heart when brought in contact with the six divisions, the twelve subdivisions, and twenty-four sections into which each separate heresy or problem is resolved. German men are very companionable, and German women very good-natured, but a Government education in their case has failed to develop that self-reliance and restless activity which are the characteristics of our fellow-countrymen. It may be said that this is not the result of education, but the natural outcome of a somewhat national stolidity, that it is only the effect of Great Frederick's discipline, which reduced whole battalions to subjection by the application of a big stick, or of the Kaiser Wilhelm's rigid power, which has manufactured an entire people into one great army. And yet all this is but Government education in one form or another; if not altogether confined to a literary curriculum, yet paternal in all its aspects. Nor has a compulsory course of training in the public schools been as yet sufficiently powerful to raise the people from a state of dependence to the more exhilarating atmosphere of a self-assured constitutionalism.

Sweden and Norway have also pronounced for compulsory education, and, although from the more independent character of the people, the results of the system may not be so transparent as in some other countries, it leaves but too sure traces in its path. Many will probably recollect a story told in the life of Thomas Brassey, with regard to the experiences of his firm in dealing with these countries. On one occasion an agent of his required a certain number of railway sleepers,

and applied to some of the principal merchants of the town, in which his headquarters were situated, for the purpose of supplying his wants. All the answers received were more or less to the same purport: "We will let you know shortly," they said, "what we can do," and no more definite reply could be obtained. At last he came across one who intimated that if he would call again in the afternoon, a final arrangement might be made. The agent called and a bargain was struck. As they sat chatting together he put this question to the merchant, "How is it, that of all the men I have applied to, you are the only one able to give me a positive answer?" The reply was remarkable, and somewhat after this fashion, "You must understand that it is the custom in this country for a junior clerk, when meeting with a difficulty, to apply to the head of his department for an explanation of the matter which perplexes him. People thus get accustomed to rely one upon the other. My father sent me to Liverpool, and the first time I went to my senior in the office, for the solution of a difficulty, he said, 'You stupid young fool, find it out for yourself.'" Such must ever be the result of too much paternal government.

But perhaps the greatest drawback to a scheme of public and free education, is the almost absolute necessity which exists, under present conditions, for the avoidance of all religious teaching. It is not that governments and the large majority of the supporters of the system are necessarily adverse to religious training, but the difficulty lies in the impossibility of so adapting the teaching as to meet the views of all the ratepayers, and in New Zealand especially of the small Roman Catholic minority. The majority of parents are undoubtedly favourable to the Bible being read in schools. To ascertain this a census

has recently been taken among them in Southland, Otago, South Canterbury, and Hawkes Bay, when the large majorities everywhere obtained established the fact beyond any fear of contradiction. Religious instruction in New Zealand is relegated to home influences, and the casual teaching of the Sunday-school. It seems a pity that this should be so. The great majority of mankind must always feel the consciousness of a dual existence, the one material, the other immaterial. So deeply is this consciousness of two co-existing lives implanted in the human breast, that the great emotions of the world in every age have been intimately connected with its presence. Long ere learned Athens used to spend her time in either telling or hearing some new thing; long ere ancient Rome, whilst destroying kingdoms, dared not to suppress religious systems, but, instead, united them to an already vast Pantheology,—this consciousness in varying forms had shaped the laws and destinies of nations. The tribes of Africa, the Incas of Peru, the wild Pacific islanders possessed a vague presentiment of this double being. It gave a life and purpose to crusaders long years ago. For it the Netherlands poured out their blood in long and cruel strife against the arms of Spain. It nerved the hosts of Cromwell; against it Robespierre, Danton, and Marat fought to the very death. It still divides our people into many sects, and whilst the world lasts, it will still so divide them. It forms the very essence of all sound teaching, for without it teaching is but a shallow imposition. It is as necessary to tell the young they must not steal, as that twice two make four; as important for them to know they must not covet, as that air is oxygen and nitrogen combined in certain fixed proportions. These arguments are couched in no sectarian spirit. If Sunday-schools and home restraints prove

powerful to keep alive religion and morality amongst the rising generation, secular education in its purest form will no doubt survive. But should they not, should larrikins infest the streets, licentiousness and violence take too deep a root, and atheists become a curse, the people will in self-defence demand religious teaching in the public schools. Secular education is only on its trial; no mere sect or generation can establish it as a permanency, if it is not found to do its work. Ebbs and flows of popular opinion are ever active; the Whigs to-day in power, next month the Tories; a generation of licentiousness, the next one of sanctimonious purity. Of these extremes history affords convincing proofs. So, as mankind has never done and cannot do without religion or morality, their teaching will be forced upon the world once more, should present means be found inoperative. Men of the most advanced opinions are apt to think the passing of a few rough laws, the pulling down of old formalities cherished by some, disliked (they know not why) by others, will make the whole world trim, and cause a fresh departure, pure and unassailable. So thought "Tribulation Wholesome" and "Zeal-of-the-land Busy," as they defaced the harmless effigies of knights, destroyed the painted windows in the churches, and desecrated the aisles of venerable cathedrals. And yet the monuments, in many instances, have been repaired; the same bright sun still casts its tinted rays through many a gorgeous tracery; and the very aisles form, to this day, the loved resort of worshippers devout and numerous. We all are apt to think the age in which we live the most important that the world has seen, and claim for our puny reasonings a lasting worth which time may very likely dissipate. But truth alone, and not each fleeting thought, is what will live; and if we

have not learned to look beyond our day, and be more tolerant than those who predeceased us, our education and our faith have lost for us a real value. But it would be idle to deny that many of the colonists believe themselves to have thrown off for ever many of the disabilities under which they previously laboured. They mention with pride that the colonies introduced the ballot before it was adopted in the old country; that after a hard-fought battle, they separated church and state; that they have already legalized marriage with a deceased wife's sister; that they are superior in agricultural appliances, and that they have organized a thorough system of compulsory education. But notwithstanding this, the fact must still remain that the colonies are new countries, and in an early and comparatively undeveloped state. The various classes have hardly settled into their future grooves; capital, although beginning to display a universal influence, does not possess the social power it will in years to come, and many of the laws as yet are only tentative. Important principles are frequently regarded more by the light of personal and present interest, than from the standpoint of a national significance; but as the different communities become enlarged, so will the interests of individuals and the moment be merged in the interests of the many and the future. There can be little doubt that at present the question of education is considered more as it effects present necessities, than as influencing the character of the people. But few, we like to think, who have had the opportunity of studying the two systems, would care to replace, by a Government control and syllabus, the present honest rivalry between our English universities, the open competition between our public schools, the emulation ruling amongst

a highly cultivated staff of teachers, the self-reliance which the system fosters amongst the taught, and the pride of parents for their own old schools, once more renascent in their sons. There can be but few who would like to see Oxford and Cambridge amongst the universities, and Eton, Harrow, Winchester, and Rugby amongst the public schools, reduced to one dead-level, a pass in one a pass in all, their time-honoured chapels dismantled, and kept but as relics of the past.

Considered purely as a secular system, the scheme of Government education, as now existing in New Zealand, offers but few objections to those who are disposed to be critical. Commencing with the elementary or public schools, these provide scholarships which enable successful candidates to prosecute their studies in the schools for higher education. The New Zealand university presents for competition its junior scholarships of an annual value of 45*l.*, tenable for three years, and open to those between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one, who have been at some Government school for at least five years. These scholarships enable students, who have shown proficiency in the high schools, to matriculate and afterwards compete for all degrees and honours which can be obtained under the statutes and regulations of the said university. The chain which connects the lowest class in the lowest school, with the chancellor of the university, is unbroken throughout its entire length. A blacksmith's or carpenter's son may leave his village a raw and uneducated lad, and return to his paternal residence a full-fledged B.A., LL.B., B.Mus., or M.B., according as his fancy and aptitude may dictate. He does not often do it, but under the system it can be done.

What is now commonly known as the Education Act

was passed so short a time ago as the 29th November, 1877, and became law on the first day of the following January. It was entitled "An Act to make further provision for the Education of the People of New Zealand." It provides that all moneys required for its administration shall be defrayed out of moneys to be from time to time appropriated for the purpose by the General Assembly. These are to be expended in the necessary salaries and expenses connected with the Central Department of Education; in a capitation grant of 3*l.* 15*s.* for every child in average daily attendance at a public school; for the establishment and maintenance of training schools, and for the establishment and maintenance of public school-houses.

Under the Act the country is divided into educational districts, the management of each district being placed under an elective Board. Each Board consists of nine members, one third of whom retire by rotation every year. The duty of these Boards is to maintain teachers and other officers; establish scholarships and school libraries, raise the required moneys, and administer all such funds as may be granted by the educational department.

A committee is elected for each school by the annual vote of the ratepayers of the district in which the school is situated. It is supposed to be subject to the general supervision and control of the Educational Board under which it acts, but it is entrusted with the management of all educational matters pertaining to its own school, and with the maintenance and improvement of the buildings. The teachers, it will be observed, are appointed by the Board, whilst the committees have the management of educational matters in their own schools. The position in which this places the teachers is not

altogether satisfactory. They stand as it were between two stools, and are more or less at the mercy of two sets of masters. When it is remembered that school committees are often composed of comparatively ignorant men; that notwithstanding the secular nature of the teaching, the various religious sects exhibit great jealousy should the teacher be of a persuasion different from their own; and that the committees not only possess an inspecting power, but are often to be found in open collision amongst themselves, or with the Board of their district, it can well be understood that the question of removing them altogether, and placing the schools under the direct control of the Boards has more than once been considered. If education is to prosper, as it ought to do, this should undoubtedly be done. The existence of the committees is not at all necessary, and in many cases is simply obstructive. They seem to have had their origin in an attempt to give a popular and democratic appearance to an Act compulsory and despotic in its character Any real power which they possess, so far as the alteration or amendment of existing principles is concerned, is simply nil; but they can often exercise a most disturbing influence. They come into perpetual conflict with the teachers. These have the power, for instance, of expelling or forbidding the attendance of any child for want of cleanliness. Let them do so, and they cause the wrath of the parents and friends of such children to descend upon their devoted heads. Let them not do so, and others complain of the contagious influences to which their children have been exposed. In either case the master has to suffer. These school committees appear to be a great drawback to the present system, and, secular as education pretends to be, and no doubt is, the jealousies of Churchmen, Presbyterians, Wesleyans, and

other sects make the position of the schoolmaster anything but a bed of roses.

The intention of the Act is that all teachers shall be certificated, but it has been found impossible always to carry out its provisions in this respect, owing to a scarcity of certified masters, and it permits persons not so qualified to be temporarily appointed. Government teachers in New Zealand are, according to the Regulations of his Excellency the Governor in Council (acting under the advice of his ministers), divided into five classes, distinguished by the letters A, B, C, D, and E. Those in

Class A. must have graduated at the University of New Zealand in first or second class honours.

Class B. must have taken the B.A. degree in the same University.

Class C. must have passed the compulsory *or* optional subjects for the degree of B.A., and the compulsory subjects for Class D.

Class D. the examination for a certificate in this class approximates very closely to that for matriculation at the University.

Class E. must have passed satisfactorily in the following subjects:—Reading, writing, spelling; English grammar and composition, arithmetic, geography, and English history: the latter principally from 1603.

Classes A. and B. are evidently intended for masters in the schools for higher education. Class C. is a sort of hybrid, and forcibly reminds us of the friar in Orcagna's fresco on the walls of Sta. Croce, who, according to Vasari, seeks to mingle with the good, but, being discovered by an angel, is driven towards the ranks of the condemned. Classes D. and E. contain the majority of masters in the public schools. It seems difficult to

conceive how a person who has not obtained a certificate in Class E. can be fitted to undertake single-handed the charge of any school. The salaries of the teachers are fixed by the Boards of the several educational districts, and are based upon the number of pupils in each school. They range from 120*l.*, for schools of thirty children and under, to about 320*l.* for schools of 780 and over. Perhaps for twenty schools where the pay is under 140*l.*, there are five with a salary of 200*l.* and more. The money for this purpose is provided by the capitation grant of 3*l.* 15*s.* per scholar. In addition to these salaries suitable residences in close proximity to the schools are provided. Pupil teachers, of thirteen years old and upwards, are employed to assist the ordinary staff, subject to certain conditions and regulations.

Under the Act "school age" is confined to children of from five to fifteen years, and the compulsory clauses may be brought into force against the parents and guardians of all children between the ages of seven and thirteen, provided they live within a distance of two miles from the school, as measured by the nearest road, and even then the compulsory attendance is limited to one half the period in each year during which the school is usually open. The compulsory clauses can only be enforced in any school by a vote of the majority of the committee of that school.

From the census returns of 1881 the Registrar-General has published the following interesting information. At the time this census was taken, the population within the colony between the ages of five and fifteen amounted to 125,527 persons. Of these, there attended Government or aided schools 87,811; there were at private and unaided schools 13,538; and under private tuition at home, 7348. The numbers attending Sunday-

schools were 78,891. If these census returns are to be relied on, the Education Act has not so far interfered with the numbers attending public religious instruction. In 1878, the first year in which the Education Act came into operation, only a fraction over 59 per cent. of the children between these ages attended the various Sunday-schools. In 1881 the number had increased to nearly 63 per cent., leaving but 37 per cent. who were either receiving no religious instruction, or receiving such teaching at home. This increase may be more than accounted for by the decrease in the number of children attending private and unaided schools.

According to the report of the Minister of Education the average attendance at the public schools for the year 1881 was 82,401: whilst the masters, assistants, and pupil teachers employed amounted to 2087, or about one teacher for every forty children. The yearly expenditure on each scholar, including buildings, came as nearly as possible to 5*l.* per head, and teachers salaries to 213,000*l.* The school-buildings erected throughout the country at the Government expense, and designed by Government architects, are substantial, and all that could be desired, and to most if not all a master's house is attached.

The recognized standards in the public schools are limited to six, but each in its degree demands far more from the pupils than do those authorized under the English Elementary Education Act of 1876. In New Zealand about one child out of every ten children remains at the public schools after the thirteenth year; of these very few advance beyond the fourth standard. It is doubtful whether more than one in eight ever reaches so far. This is not surprising when it is understood that, to attain a fourth standard certificate, it is necessary to pass an examination in reading, spelling,

dictation, writing, arithmetic, grammar, composition, geography, and English history, and also to have studied (although not necessary for a pass) elementary science (embracing elementary physics, chemistry, mechanics, and physiology), recitation, singing, drill, drawing, and in the case of girls, instead of elementary science, an advanced proficiency in needlework. Standard number six is of course more difficult, but instead of cumbering the present chapter with further detail, it will be better to refer those who wish for fuller information to the Appendix, in which will be found particulars of the subjects in which proficiency is required before the children can pass the different standards.[1] It would appear that the standards, as fixed by the Minister of Education, are quite too pretentious for the ages and capacities of the children at present attending the elementary schools, and, it may be said, far beyond the grasp of many of the teachers whom the Boards are at present able to secure. The requirements of the standards are so severe that masters are frequently obliged to neglect a careful grounding of the younger classes, and leave this important matter to the care of inferior assistants or pupil teachers. Even so in the higher classes masters are often obliged to replace thorough tuition by a species of "cram," in order to pass their pupils into a more advanced standard—a step which all scholars in fair attendance are expected to take once in twelve months. If the scholars at any school fail in doing this to any appreciable extent the cause is naturally attributed to the master's inefficiency. Hence the necessity for the system of "cram" which is everywhere prevalent in a greater or less degree. The Inspector-General for the colony alluding, in his Annual Report for 1881, to the

[1] Appendix, p. 365.

examinations held in the South Canterbury educational district, makes the following remarks confirmatory of the opinion which we have already expressed. He says, "After making every allowance for the exceptional difficulties (alluding to prevalence of sickness) teachers have had this year to contend with, it must be admitted that there are vital defects in the course of instruction, when . . . . 38·7 per cent. failed to reach Standard I.; in other words, that this large proportion could not read and spell easy words of one syllable, write on a slate the letters of the alphabet, and do very elementary addition. The reason, however, is not far to seek. The syllabus is so exacting that the head-master's ability and energy are fully taxed to cover the work of the upper standards, and the younger classes are left, with very little supervision, to the management of pupil teachers and incompetent assistants." Or again, let us take the report of another examiner. "The candidates all answer the most advanced questions best. Their stock of ideas and their natural intelligence is out of all proportion to their acquaintance with rules and analysis. This disposition betrays the absence of sound preparation, and ought to be corrected so far as the means of the teachers will allow." Or once more, "Many instances occur of the force or bearing of a question being wholly or partially ignored, and pages of matter are given which as answers are quite valueless." These extracts are sufficient to prove that rote knowledge and short cuts are very apt to take the place of slower and more methodical teaching. The evils of such a system may not be at once apparent, but the after-results are none the less sure.

It would be erroneous to lay the blame, which in reality, attaches to a system, at the door of either

teachers or scholars. The educational department asks both to do more than can reasonably be expected. On the other hand it is asserted by many that when the system gets thoroughly established, and when better qualified teachers are employed, everything will work more smoothly. But the truth is that the standards are pitched too high. No more than a certain quantity of knowledge can be knocked into children of from seven to thirteen, be they resident in New Zealand or elsewhere; and it is almost certain that parents will never be able to keep their sons and daughters in these public schools longer than they do now. It may well be doubted whether the average boy of thirteen, about to enter one of the public schools at home, and with all the advantages of his previous training, could do more than pass the New Zealand standard number six. It is therefore a grave question, and one worthy of the deepest consideration at the hands of those to whom the elementary education of this country is entrusted, whether better results would not follow from considerably lowering the present existing standards; whether it would not be better to leave mathematical and physical geography, conditions of matter, vibrations, the characteristics of saccheroids, and the constituents of blood, muscle, and bone to the schools for higher education, and be content, at least in the public schools, to teach the pupils thoroughly those equally important, if less ambitious subjects upon which their future success in life will mainly depend.

For the purpose of educating young persons of both sexes as certificated teachers, there are four so-called "Normal" schools situated in Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, and Dunedin. In these, during the year 1881, 284 students were being educated at a cost of

nearly 7000*l.* per annum. As years go on these schools ought to produce a very superior class of both masters and mistresses.

Up to this point the system of governmental education, except in so far as it aims at too high a standard, may be commended as being undoubtedly advantageous to the country, and as meeting all the requirements which could fairly be demanded by the people. But, when we consider the principles on which the scheme of higher education is based, it becomes a matter for consideration whether the Government is not attempting to do more than it ought. Admitting that it is the duty of a State to provide a sound education for the masses, it may be questioned whether it is either advisable or necessary to tax the people for the education of those whose parents are well able to undertake the responsibility themselves. It is also open to doubt whether this higher education would not produce more satisfactory results if left to private enterprise. As the upper and middle classes of the colony grow in wealth and importance, it is probable that they will become dissatisfied with the social training and admixture of classes invariably to be found in the high schools. Such has been the case in the United States, and such in all human probability will be the case in New Zealand. For those who cannot afford to pay for more, the education to be found at the public schools would certainly appear sufficiently comprehensive. To those who can do so, the high schools even now are not altogether satisfactory. The remark may often be heard, "If I could afford it, I would send my children elsewhere." But under present circumstances parents are unable to follow their own bent, because Government by the establishment of these schools has more or less destroyed all private competition. Had it not been for

this, good private schools would certainly have been in existence to-day in all the principal towns of the colony. Masters would have undertaken the work who had obtained a degree at some university. In later times they might have passed out of the New Zealand University with high honours. Such men from their previous training would have been fitted to teach, and in their work would ever be sustained by a spirit of emulation amongst themselves. At present the head masters of the high schools receive about 500*l.* a year; a sum quite sufficient to keep them in easy circumstances. They are elected by the boards of higher education, and, although in many instances scholars with the highest testimonials, their position as salaried teachers causes the school-work to be regarded more as a necessary drudgery than as a means of securing an increased reputation consequent upon sustained exertion. No doubt many of us can remember the difference between the teaching of the salaried usher and the proprietor himself in the preliminary schools at which we were educated. We cannot have forgotten the monotonous routine of the former, as compared with the earnest inculcation of the force of the aorist or particle exhibited by the latter. When it is a question of the highest phases of education we must confess to be no believer in a Government system, or in short, in any system which does not place both teacher and pupil on their mettle through an appreciation of serious outside competition. At present many send their children to these high schools, but how many are induced to do so by necessity, and how many by compulsion, it is impossible to say, for practically there exists no local opposition to the Government system. The Education Act sets forth in section 56, that "all the branches of a liberal education, comprising Latin and Greek classics,

French and other modern languages, mathematics, and such other branches of science as the advancement of the colony and the increase of the population may from time to time require, may be taught in such schools. For such higher education, fees shall be paid by the pupils at such rates as shall be fixed by regulation." These fees are in most cases at the rate of about 10*s.* a quarter for the first subject taught, and of 5*s.* for every subject in excess of one. These schools are specially endowed with grants of land which will in time become valuable, and in many instances probably cause the schools to be hereafter self-supporting. But unless the system be greatly changed, it is difficult to believe that they will ever meet the requirements of a first-class education. They are more likely to become locally endowed schools for the sons of tradespeople.

It is with pleasure that we turn to the consideration of the Government School of Agriculture, situated at Lincoln, near Christchurch, and placed under the control of the Canterbury College Board of Governors. This is the first school of the kind instituted in New Zealand, and whatever opinion may be generally held as to the relative merits of the theory as against the practice of agriculture, few will be found to deny to a school of this description the great importance which it must necessarily possess. In a new country in which for the most part the energies of the farmer have been directed to obtaining from the land the greatest possible quantity of produce without enriching it by any adequate return, and in which a large proportion of the tillers of the soil have had no anterior training, the published experiences and reports of a practical school must possess almost as great a value to those already engaged in agriculture as to the students themselves. The school too is a voluntary one,

in the sense that it is obligatory on none to pass through a course of study within its walls. Under Government control, and supported by Government funds, it compels no one to accept its teaching. The school was opened about two years ago, and consists of a handsome group of buildings in the Gothic style. It contains a theatre, library, museum, chemical laboratory, dining-hall, separate bedrooms for the pupils, lavatories, bath-room, and quarters for the director. The farm contains 500 acres of land of various qualities, from rich swamp to comparatively thin light soils overlying deep beds of shingle. Stables, granary, cowhouses, dairy, piggeries, and implement sheds are attached, and the machinery and farm implements have been carefully selected. The dairy utensils include the latest improvements introduced in the system of butter and cheese-making. A portion of the farm is devoted to experimentalizing on different methods of cultivation, on the effects of manures, on the qualities of native and foreign grasses, and on the comparative value of new varieties of cereals, roots, fodder, and other plants. The students are required to take part in the daily work of the farm and to learn practical ploughing, the use of implements and machinery, the management of stock, milking, and the making of cheese and butter. Land-surveying and levelling is also taught. The course of instruction in the class-room includes amongst other subjects agricultural chemistry, biology, geology, veterinary medicine and surgery, mathematics, and book-keeping. The school seems to have met with such general favour that all the accommodation for boarders is fully taken up. In an able paper published in the *New Zealand Country Journal*, for September, 1880, Mr. W. E. Ivey, the first director of the institution, combats the idea that the object of the school is to

teach farmers. He argues that a medical school does not make doctors, but only gives the sons of doctors and others such an education as will fit them to become doctors. So an agricultural school aims at training those sons of colonists who are intending to follow the calling of the farmer. As a rule when his son leaves school the question for the father is, what he is to do with him. The answer will generally be, "Send him to a good farm." But in Mr. Ivey's opinion "it is a mistake to send so young and generally so ignorant a lad into an ordinary farm, if it can be avoided. The transition from school to farm work, from all head work to all manual labour, is too sudden. . . . If a youngster has at an early age to follow the plough all day, and day after day, he is, I think, apt to become dull as the beasts he drives, besides acquiring that shambling, slouching gait, which surely it is not necessary the farmers should appropriate. . . . If he is to become a farm labourer well and good, but the rearing of farm labourers should not be our object. We should aim at cultivating the lad's brains as well as developing his muscle, and what better time could be selected for this purpose than when, naturally, he is incapable of performing the full day's work of a man?" Should the college at Lincoln prove the success which it is expected to do, Otago and other districts will probably be provided with similar schools. In the meantime it is a gratifying fact that a young country like New Zealand should, amongst its many other public institutions, possess an agricultural college.

"The New Zealand University" is the highest body connected with education recognized in the colony. It is allowed by Royal Charter granted under the Queen's sign manual on "the twenty-ninth day of July, in the fortieth year of our reign." Under this charter it is

willed, granted, and declared, "that the degrees of bachelor and master of arts, and bachelor and doctor in law, medicine, and music, hereafter to be granted or confirmed by the said University of New Zealand, shall be recognized as academic distinctions and rewards of merit, and be entitled to rank, precedence, and consideration in our United Kingdom, in our colonies and possessions throughout the world, as fully as if the said degrees had been granted by any university of our said United Kingdom." The present Colonial University Act was passed in 1874, repealing a former Act of 1870. The University was not established with the object of teaching, but for the purpose of conferring on worthy recipients academical degrees and certificates of proficiency. The body corporate consists of a chancellor, a vice-chancellor, twenty-four fellows and graduates. It possesses two courts—the senate and the convocation, both of which have certain administrative powers as specified under the Act. Instead of the number of colleges collected in one town or city, and which exercise such an important influence upon university life at home, educational institutions situated here and there throughout the colony are affiliated to the New Zealand University. It is at all times lawful for the senate to make, alter, and amend, any statutes for the affiliation to or connexion with the University of any college or educational establishment to which the governing body of such college or establishment may consent, provided always that no such statutes shall affect the religious observances or regulations enforced in such colleges and educational establishments. In other words, the power of the University is purely secular. This must naturally be the case where it is itself dependent upon Government for the moneys necessary to discharge current expenses. Each

April it must report the proceedings of the previous twelve months to Government. Every such account must contain a full report of the income and expenditure of the University, audited in such a manner as the Governor of the colony for the time being may direct. A copy of such report and of all the statutes and regulations of the University must be laid each year before the general assembly at Wellington.

The New Zealand University is, in short, a corporate body, empowered under Royal Charter to grant degrees which shall be recognized throughout her Majesty's empire. This it can do so long as the standards of knowledge requisite to obtain such degrees shall, in the opinion of the Governor, preserve a necessary equilibrium. On the other hand the University is constituted and endowed by Act of the colonial Parliament. It is at any moment liable to have its constitution and endowments curtailed or enlarged by the same power which created it. Practically it is but a Government institution existing, in its present form, like all other public branches of education by the will of the people. Its object is to foster the pursuit of a liberal education. Its undergraduates are examined in almost every conceivable subject. The ologies are all included, save one, and that not the least important, namely, theology. In consequence of this the time-honoured degree of a doctor of divinity remains unrecognized. It is also unlawful for the senate to impose on any person any compulsory religious examination or test. So jealously are all matters which even bear a reference to religion excluded, that the University calendar makes no distinction in its pages between Sunday and the other six days of the week. It takes cognizance of but three holy days in the year, and of these not because they are holy days, but because certain

secular observances depend upon them. It mentions Easter Sunday, Good Friday, and Christmas Day. The first of these because it is a movable feast, and a vacation depends upon the period of the year on which it falls. The two last because they happen to be legal and civil holidays. But since these three days are inserted but for legal and civil purposes, why desecrate the calendar with such names at all? Why not insert in their place the sixth and eight germinal and the first nivose? Surely such a plan would be more consistent. The University curriculum thus carefully avoids the slightest approach to religious teaching. It does not even permit voluntary examinations in Biblical knowledge and ecclesiastical history. Thus to avoid the subject altogether, even from an educational point of view, would seem in the highest degree unjustifiable and reprehensible. The syllabus of no institution can be considered perfect which does not include in its studies all the branches of any subject which it pretends to teach. As well to attempt to teach mechanics and veto hydrostatics, as to teach history, and disallow one portion of it because that portion happens to be contained in a book called the Bible. What consistency or perfection can be claimed for a system which asks the candidate for honours to "estimate the influence of the worship of Apollo on Greek civilization," and yet decline to examine him as to the influence which the occurrences in Judæa during the years A.D. 30—33 exercised upon mediæval and more modern times? How can the student deliberately weigh "the influence of Germany, France, Italy, and Spain, on English literature and thought in the sixteenth century," or "compare Donne, Hall, Taylor, and Fuller as preachers and moralists," without studying those religious movements which stimulated

thought, animated preachers, and gave a departure for the morality of the age under review. This studious avoidance of all religious subjects borders upon fanaticism. In any case it is the policy of an extreme and narrow sectarianism. To some it may appear a sign of the greater enlightenment and development of the latter part of the nineteenth century; to others but a proof of a greater decadence, and of the spread of rationalism. England has often, before now, in spite of occasional periods of narrow-mindedness and oppression, been conspicuous as the home of liberty, morality, and religious toleration. Possibly her universities, which, while affording protection to all denominations, remain open for the further consideration and free investigation of religious principles, may yet afford an example of moderation in this respect which less experienced and more radical institutions would do well to follow.

The present "statutes and regulations" of the University came into force on the first day of May, 1882. The meetings of the senate are held in the different towns of the colony as may from time to time be appointed. The colleges of Canterbury, Auckland, and other scholastic institutions affiliated to it are obliged to provide lecture-rooms with suitable apparatus and appliances for the purpose of teaching. Lectures must be regularly given for a period of not less than six months in each year, and such institutions must show, to the satisfaction of the senate, that they are competent to supply, through their professors, lecturers, and teachers, a three years' course in Latin, mathematics, and not less than three of the other subjects prescribed for the B.A. degree. At some period during the last quarter of every year examinations must be held by each affiliated institution in all the subjects taught under the condition of affiliation in which students may desire to

be examined. Students who have attended the lectures, and passed the annual examinations, shall be deemed to have kept the University terms of the year. The examination for matriculation consists in six, or more, of the following subjects :—Latin, English, and Arithmetic (all compulsory), Greek, French, German, Italian, Algebra, Euclid, History, Geography, and Elementary Chemistry, Physics, and Biology. Candidates must have attained the age of sixteen years. The examination fee is one guinea.

The subjects of examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts are (1) Latin Language and Literature; (2) Greek Language and Literature; (3) English Language and Literature; (4) Modern Languages and Literature; (5) General History and Political Economy; (6) Jurisprudence and Constitutional History; (7) Mathematics; (8) Physical Science; (9) Chemistry; (10) Natural Science, and (11) Mental Science.[2] No candidate will be admitted unless he shall have passed in at least five of the above subjects, of which two must be Latin and Mathematics. The examination may be taken in two sections. Every student must have kept his terms for three years at some affiliated institution. Examinations for honours are held, but are only open to candidates at the examination of the year following that in which they have passed for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. "Ad eundem" degrees are also given. Bachelors of Arts who have taken honours shall be deemed to have passed the examination for the degree of Master of Arts. Other candidates must be examined in one of the various groups of subjects selected for the purpose.

Out of the funds voted by Parliament the University offers three classes of scholarships, to be called the

[2] For further particulars, and divisions of the subjects, see Appendix.

junior, senior, and medical scholarships. The senior scholarships, to which allusion has already been made, are of the annual value of 45*l.*, tenable for three years, and open to persons between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one, who have not already entered upon the University course. The senior scholarships are awarded, upon the recommendation of the examiners, to students who shall pass either the first or second section of the examination for a B.A. degree, and attain great credit in at least one subject. The papers given for these scholarship examinations contain questions of a higher character than those for the ordinary degree. The scholarships are tenable for one year in the case of candidates preparing for an ordinary pass, and for two years in the case of those studying for honours. Their annual value is 60*l.* One medical scholarship is offered each year of the value of 100*l.*, and tenable for three years. It is decided by excellence in the papers on anatomy, physiology, zoology, botany, and chemistry. The other degrees to be obtained at the University are those of LL.B., LL.D., Mus.B., Mus.D., M.B., and M.D. The fees for an ordinary B.A. degree amount to three guineas, for other Bachelors to seven guineas, and for Doctors to fifteen guineas. The University possesses its legal and academical costumes, in which members must appear at all its public ceremonies. When collected together, the whole body, from the Chancellor, with his black velvet gown, scarlet velvet collar, and facings embroidered with gold, to the ordinary graduate, in his Cambridge gown and hood, lined with pink silk, and bordered with white fur, must present an imposing appearance, and greatly assist in lending due weight to the augustness of this "body politic and corporate."

But a few words more. There still exists, in a sufficiently prosperous condition, the Christchurch College, an institution approaching, as nearly as possible, to one of the English public schools, and untrammelled by Government control. It is administered by a warden and fellows, and supported by lands set apart for the purpose by the founders of the Canterbury settlement, with the additional assistance of fees paid by the scholars. Its buildings occupy a central position, bordering upon the Christchurch public park, but, picturesque as they may be in themselves, they afford to the old-country public school boy and university man a greater satisfaction in the knowledge that here, at all events, his sons may be brought up after the manner of their forefathers. The college possesses its private chapel, where every day, at early prayers, the venerable primate may be seen, exhibiting, by his consistent presence, a lesson to the young, of the importance to a country of a publicly recognized worship. In this one spot, at all events, the scoffer may temporarily be forgotten, the freethinker and atheist meet with a well-merited oblivion, and the spirit of charity offer its kindred hand to those good men of all denominations, who, whatever their differences and prejudices, are doing their utmost to improve the spiritual and moral condition of the flocks intrusted to their care. To this institution proceed the sons of many of the best families of the country, some of whom, when their college career in New Zealand is closed, leave for either Oxford or Cambridge, to complete their studies in one of the two Universities. Far be it from us to regret that the authority of the Canterbury Church of England settlement is a thing of the past, or to maintain that the province could ever have attained its present pre-eminence under sectarian

rule. But we are thankful to believe that much good survives from the genuine intentions of its early founders, and that sufficient funds have been preserved for the maintenance of the Christchurch College. Owing to its existence a few private and preliminary schools are kept up, where boys can receive the rudiments of a future education, accompanied by religious teaching, and where parents can feel assured that their children will, for a time at least, be safe from "the callousness and numbness of soul" too likely to be engendered among teachers and pupils by a purely secular system.

St. John's School, in Auckland, founded and erected by the late Bishop Selwyn, at the cost of many thousand pounds, and placed in a delightful position, has unfortunately, from a variety of causes, been allowed to fall into comparative decay. For many years it has not exercised that important influence over the education of the district in which it is situated, which its founder would have desired.

It is certain that many of the ideas suggested in the present chapter will be impugned by some, derided by others, and displeasing to many. Education is an important matter which can never be regarded in the same light by all parties. It must always exert a sensible influence upon the lives of every living person, even in its lower and material developments. Considered in combination with its religious aspects, it has undoubtedly stirred, and ever will stir, the heart of man with a power unknown to any single science or combination of sciences; and with impressions more lasting than those of any matter of State policy. A solution of the difficulties with which the question of education is surrounded has ever required the attentive application of years, and frequently of generations. A step half

gained to-day, half lost to-morrow; an irresistible pressure hither during one generation, an almost equally forcible tendency thither during the next; a combination of all these influences constituting its normal life, and ever leading it a little further on its onward course—this is education. The value of what is being done to-day can only be estimated by turning to the past, and realizing the improvement which has been established since the days of our forefathers' fathers. Final results cannot be judged by present impressions. However prejudiced our remarks may be considered by certain schools of thought, we have endeavoured, in their expression, to separate ourselves, as much as possible, from immediate influences; to consider religion in its catholicity, and not in its sectarianism; to learn from the past whether education ever has been, or ever can be, for long together disconnected from religious training, and whether that State which assumes the sole responsibility of training the young, to the extinction of all private and denominational enterprise, is not bound to attend to the teaching of Christianity and morality. Children, it is certain, often suffer for the sins of their parents. A nation has often suffered from the errors and incapacity of its rulers. And after the most careful reflection we can arrive at no other conclusion than that a Government, which, for the sake of temporary expediency, banishes the Bible from its syllabus, forbids the teaching of the simplest moral truths by its officers, and puts away from it the public recognition of all Divine laws in its schools, cannot be doing its duty, either in the present, or with regard to the future; and may be inflicting serious injury on those whom it is bound to protect.

CHAPTER XVII.

RELIGION.

It is by no means our intention to enter into a description of the various tenets and modes of worship that prevail amongst the sects which form the religious population of the colony. These are in all important particulars identical with what may be seen on a much larger scale at home. Our remarks will be confined to the salient differences necessarily presented by a new country, and to the steps which have been taken to build up a religious system where a few years ago existed but virgin forests and uncultivated plains—the abodes of a savage race, and the habitat of but few species of terrestrial or animal life. Collected from all classes, and migrating from all parts of the United Kingdom, the people of New Zealand have, as might be expected, imported into their new home most of the divergencies of belief to be found at their antipodes. The religious denominations include Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Methodists, Bible Christians, Baptists, Congregational Independents, Lutherans, Unitarians, Quakers, Catholic Apostolics, Roman Catholics, Latter-day Saints, Jews, Mohammedans, and pagans. Besides these a few thousand persons hold opinions which can be classified under those of no recognized sect, and who would probably find it difficult to assign a reason for the principles involved in their crude

and heterodox speculations. According to the last census but two hundred and seventy-two individuals were bold enough to assert that they entertained no religious opinion whatsoever—in other words that they were atheists. The religion of over thirteen hundred is unspecified; whilst nearly fourteen thousand "object to state" the belief which ought to influence their lives. Possibly the latter class largely consists of men who, whilst openly professing no religion, have a more or less defined consciousness of the existence of a Deity. Their wild and roving lives, their habits formed in camps, the distance which for many years has intervened between themselves and the nearest place of worship, have each and all conspired to cast their lot amongst those who look upon the seventh day only as a day of rest from work. They no doubt yearn from time to time for better things, but old established habits, old camp companions, and love of ease, prove stronger than their vague aspirings. On the one hand, influenced perhaps by memories of home and churches once revered, they dare not profess to be of no religion—atheists. On the other, they think it mockery, looking at the lives they lead, to claim connexion with a church, and most of all with that they used to serve.

After inspecting the long and varied list of sects just mentioned, it must be clear that, whatever other prejudices or civil disabilities the colonists have left behind, religious differences have not been lessened by any larger-minded uniformity induced by change of life and scene. Possibly, starting as they did on an altogether fresh basis, the several sects exercise more toleration towards each other than they used to do at home. The principle is fully recognized that every individual possesses a right to enjoy the perfect freedom of his religious convictions.

Irritated by no Establishment, system of tithes, or memory of former disabilities, an equality is secured for all persuasions, with a result which can hardly be appreciated in the United Kingdom. The Quaker has never been driven from agricultural pursuits in consequence of scruples with regard to tithes. No Test Act has incapacitated those who hold certain religious views from occupying the highest offices of State. No bigotry on the part of Calvinists or Episcopalians has thrown men into jail on account of conscientiously formed convictions; nor has the Jew ever been refused a seat in the Houses of the Legislature. Fortunately these things exist no longer in the United Kingdom, but it is only in comparatively recent times that they ceased to do so. Many persons now living can distinctly remember their effects in the mutual distrust and jealousy which prevailed amongst opposing creeds. It is within the last few years only that men can be said to have worked together regardless of religious schools of thought. Even to-day it is but the more enlightened who attempt even so much. It is but the more moderate who even yet accept the meaning of the word "charity" in its fullest and its highest sense. The Romish hierarch, the uncompromising ritualist, the dogmatic low churchman, the narrow-minded sectarist, each typify opposing schools of thought, and each are more or less impracticable. It may safely be asserted that if one or any of these sects possessed exclusive power, it would so tyrannize as to destroy all liberty of thought. Fortunately the bulk of any people is composed of moderate men, who have sufficient influence to free their world from the restraints of opiniated littleness. It would be absurd to suggest that religious parties in New Zealand are entirely free from jealousies. To hold such an opinion would be to deny

the plainest evidence. But this much may be said, that the natural independence of the colonists, their separation from the restraints of hereditary customs, their school-boy regard for individual merit rather than for a well-filled purse, and the freedom which is enjoyed by all sects alike, have tended to make them more liberal towards diverging opinions than would otherwise have been the case. In country districts where no churches or chapels are to be found, all denominations alike enjoy the use of the public school-rooms for religious services. Certainly in one place, and probably in others, the church is used alternately by Churchmen and Presbyterians. In outlying parts of the country, where but one service can be supported, it is frequented by the people, Roman Catholics excepted, regardless of religious distinctions. Bazaars and public entertainments, which may be organized for church purposes by any sect, are invariably more or less supported by those belonging to other denominations. It may very fairly be urged that some of these conditions are dependent upon the country being as at present both sparsely inhabited and comparatively undeveloped. This is to some extent true. But the fact remains that an intermingling of denominations prevails in a greater or less degree; that persons are willing to assist a good cause, although it may not be their own; and that they do not possess the same exclusiveness which is often to be seen in older communities. If the colony does not enjoy the advantages of so much dogma as countries swayed by old establishments, it enjoys what to many will be found equally satisfactory, an equal share of "personal religion." In place of being governed *ex cathedrâ*, its religion may be said to spring spontaneously from the masses and from the hearts of the people. It is pleasant to visit the Sunday-

schools and see the young adding to their store of Biblical knowledge, and at the same time feel that their attendance is not merely the result of established usage; that it is owing to the efforts of the ministers and teachers, supplemented by a general craving amongst the parents for the religious instruction of their children. It is pleasant to feel that the presence of the children in so great numbers springs from a personal appreciation by the people of the necessity which exists for religious training; that the motive ascends from below, and is not the result of superstition or benumbing servitude. It is far healthier, whether in the old world or the new, that such should be the case; that Sunday-schools should be self-sought, and not recruited by pressure from above; that clothing clubs and coal tickets, the keys of purgatory and such like inducements, should be quite separate from pure and honest Sunday teaching. But although asserting, as we do, that religion, to be strong and durable, must have deep root among the people, it must not less on that account be kept restrained. The ranks of an army must be officered, its discipline enforced, and laws enacted not only for its own good, but to protect the innocent and weak. The bravest men undisciplined succumb before a far inferior foe. So, too, religious motions, when they animate large crowds, must faint or go astray, unless directed by a sensible control. The crowd, however earnest, must have teachers; but then the teaching should be true, not arbitrary, confined to Christian doctrine, and carefully remote from politics or necessities of State. Too little leadership produces anarchy, too much hypocrisy. The power assumed by Rome has brought the masses of that Church in Spain and Mexico, in Uruguay and Sicily, to apathy and ignorance. Wesley, by refusing to conform to law

and order, raised an anarchy he could not stay. His schism caused a second; the second paved the way for others. It has been said if that good man could but have lived to see the fruits of what he but begun, he never would have left the Church; and could he now be brought to life, he would find it difficult to reconcile the Wesleyan, Primitive, Free United, and the New Connexion Methodists, all of whom have taken a varied impress from his thoughts.

The dangers which religion has to fear in the old world are atrophy and schism; in the new too great a latitudinarianism. Descended from an ancestry of serfs and paid retainers, raised through centuries of toil by forces not their own, but growing with themselves, old-world people are wont to take religion, laws, morality, and customs as they find them to their hand. They are wont to accept what is as right and true from habitude. They do not care to seek for reasons. The squire enjoys his broad estates, in course of time to be succeeded by his son; the farmer occupies his farm just as his father did before; the ploughman held his plough some fifty years ago, his son and grandson do the same to-day; the merchant dies, a son takes up his work; the rector passes quietly from view—another fills his place almost insensibly. As a rule the expansions of science, legislation, or religious thought which occur in any generation affect the national rather than the individual character of the people. The generation, as a whole, may be making rapid progress, and at the same time the individuals who form its component parts may be wedded as firmly as ever to habits and practices which have been the growth of centuries. In an old country people are for ever in search of precedents. All argument is based on precedent. It is but the leaders of their generation

who urge the masses on towards the regions of experiment. The inclination of the people for what is has a natural tendency to induce a state of lethargy. It must be so. Undisputed possession produces indifference, and familiarity breeds contempt. Men become careless of that which can be obtained with a minimum of trouble at any time. Under such circumstances atrophy is sure to succeed. But this stage once attained, energetic and earnest, though possibly ill-judging, spirits are always to be found desirous of remedying what they consider to be the abuses of the generation in which they live. Eager to secure the objects which they propose, such persons are frequently led to take a "short cut" through a hitherto unexplored country. In place of attempting remedial measures, nothing can satisfy their enthusiastic souls but a total severance from the unclean thing. Hence comes schism.

On the other hand the colonist is for the most part a man enjoying a large share of individuality. The mere fact of his choosing to leave old tracks to work out fresh paths for himself is *primâ facie* evidence that he stands possessed, in a greater or less degree, of self-reliance. To be successful he must in some sense realize what the great Cæsar felt when he penned those immortal words, "Veni, vidi, vici." He has, at all events, crossed the ocean, and encountered its storms and calms. He has converted waste lands into fields of waving corn, and made of the pathless swamp a luxuriant feeding-ground for cattle. He has built towns in erstwhile desert places, and listens to the hum of busily revolving machinery, where used to be but the solitude of nature. Thrown on his own resources, self-confidence becomes a second nature. As years speed on and comforts accumulate about his home, he feels them to be his own creation.

Successful or unsuccessful, he has made or marred his own position. His individuality stands forth in clearer relief by the greater necessity which existed for its development. Accustomed to act for himself, he becomes, perhaps, too restive under discipline. Whether aware of the fact or not, he naturally, from the situation in which he is placed, becomes a thinker—possibly a freethinker. Having thrown off many of the recognized and wholesome restraints of modern life, he is prone to allow a somewhat dangerous idealism to permeate his thoughts. His conceptions of religion are likely to be influenced by the general tenor of his life. His religious views will probably not be irretrievably wedded to the narrow groove of a particular school, and although the member of a church, he is almost certain to be an advocate for religious equality. It can readily be seen how the latter idea, if carried to excess, may pave the way for a dangerous latitudinarianism.

Many persons will be inclined to ask, are the colonists, as a rule, a religious body of people? Various replies would be given to such a question. Some would assert that they are, and some the very contrary. A true answer will most likely be found to lie midway between the two extremes, and should rather be sought from general characteristics than in individual examples. England has the reputation of being a religious and God-fearing country, and when we come to make a careful comparison between her people and those of other lands, she indisputably deserves the character with which she has been accredited. But were a stranger solely to judge from the holiday crowds which every Sunday frequent her favourite seaside towns, were he to visit during the hours of service the vast suburbs of her chief cities, peep into the homes of many of her

farmers, or lift the veil which shelters the privacy of the rich, he might be disposed to arrive at a directly opposite conclusion. Were he to transfer the sphere of his observations to New Zealand, he would be apt to form a similar opinion. He would see labouring men who never attended a place of worship; farmers who did so never or but rarely; and a portion of the people who spent the Sabbath in holiday-making and sensual indulgence. But when we come to reflect upon the many churches and chapels which everywhere abound, and regard each Sunday the large and well-dressed congregations which issue from their doors; when we think of the thousands of children regularly attending the Sunday-schools, and consider the decorous behaviour of the larger portion of the population, we hope and are glad to think that the colony may be reckoned amongst the religious and God-fearing countries of the world. We trust that if for a short moment she has driven religious instruction from her public schools, better counsels will ere long prevail and attract to her people that blessing which must always attend the national acknowledgment of religious duties.

Episcopalians, principally members of the Church of England, comprise exactly forty-one and a half per cent. of the population of the colony. Presbyterians, with their divisions and subdivisions, rank next, with a trifle over twenty-three per cent. Wesleyans can claim nine and a half, and Roman Catholics fourteen per cent. Baptists, Congregationalists, Lutherans, Unitarians, and Quakers, when united number about six in every hundred, whilst pagans constitute an odd one per cent. The latter are almost exclusively Chinese, many of whom earn a fair livelihood either as hawkers or by market-gardening. In relation to the State, all churches

stand on a perfect equality; but it is evident from the above figures that Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and Wesleyans embrace nearly three parts of the population. The importance and numbers of what may be called the more decidedly dissenting sects are but insignificant, while even the Roman Catholics hold a comparatively subordinate position. The Church of England, which comprises more than two-fifths of the people, possesses an influence even greater than would be expected from the census returns, and decidedly enjoys a pre-eminent distinction. Freed from the restraints of a State establishment, she still attracts a high class of men to the ministry, and includes within her ranks, perhaps, the most influential portion of the laity. She has her bishops and archdeacons, her deans and canons, her lay readers and numerous congregations. Her members, whilst admitting that all things are lawful for them, retain a solid conviction that all things are not expedient, and willingly submit in their corporate capacity to the authority of the diocesans and their duly appointed officers. Keeping the individual conscience free, they perceive that in things religious as in things temporal, it is better to live under a limited monarchy than admit a self-constituted republicanism.

The church in New Zealand is divided into six bishoprics, namely, those of Christchurch, Nelson, Auckland, Wellington, Dunedin, and Napier, the Bishop of Christchurch being Primate. Each diocese holds an annual session of its synod, the members of which consist of the bishop and clergy, with representatives of the laity elected by the communicants of the several parishes. Every third year a general synod assembles, which is attended by all the bishops, assisted by three clergymen and three laymen from each diocese. These synods

frame statutes and adopt resolutions concerning matters of internal organization. They regulate the trusts and manage the expenditure of church property. They also take under their consideration questions of doctrine and discipline. The stipends of the clergy are provided for by the subscriptions of the parishioners, supplemented by grants from funds in the hands of the church property trustees. Probably, as the colony grows older, many livings will become more or less endowed. In every country and in every age persons are to be found desirous of improving the position of their Church either during life or after death. Already the parish in which we are writing has an endowment which, at the present rate of interest, amounts to two hundred pounds a year. The contiguous parish is similarly situated, and other endowments here and there exist. It has been stated that a person recently deceased has willed to a church in the diocese of Nelson funds which will ultimateiy give the incumbent an annual income of about eighteen hundred a year. But of this we possess no further evidence than newspaper report. Up to the present the bulk of the donations which have been given to the church consist in free grants of land as sites for churches and parsonages, and for the purpose of providing glebes. The value of the livings descend from those of five hundred a year, with parsonage, to others of smaller amount. Probably the average value of livings in the diocese of Christchurch is close upon three hundred a year, exclusive of dwelling-house. The clergy are nominated by the parishioners, subject, however, to the confirmation of the bishop. In the case of a few endowments the bishop has the sole presentation. The parsonages are fully equal in style and accommodation to those to be found in rural districts at home.

Taken as a body, the clergy hold what may be considered moderate views; nor, as a rule, would the colonists be willing to submit to any extremes of thought. In a few instances the tendency is towards the high school of ritual, and it is said that the most correct example of church millinery is to be found in Dunedin, the very stronghold of Presbyterianism. But New Zealand is not the only country where opposition engenders opposition, or where extremes are to be found in close contact. Calvinism is but the natural result of the abuses of Romanism, and the doctrine of election but a consequential effect of plenary indulgence. Flourishing as the Church of England is in the other provinces, the system as seen at home is more closely followed in the diocese of Christchurch than elsewhere. Founded originally as a church settlement, the province has always offered attractions to members of the Established Church.

The Christchurch Cathedral is undoubtedly the finest ecclesiastical edifice in the colony, and is under the control of a dean and chapter. It possesses its precentor and boarding-school, in which the choir boys are musically and otherwise instructed. The building itself was designed by Sir Gilbert Scott, and is of the early English period—a style which that architect made conspicuously his own. At present the choir is but temporary, the permanent part of the work stopping short at the dividing arch, which will eventually separate the nave and aisles from the rest of the structure. The tower, surmounted by a lofty spire, contains a peal of eight bells, the tower and bells being the munificent contribution of a single family. The organ is by Hill, and was built at a cost of about seventeen hundred pounds, the amount being raised by public subscription.

Already a west window of richly-stained glass has been inserted, the gift of one of the present residents in Christchurch. The cost of the work, so far as completed, has been about sixty thousand pounds, and when finished, the colony will possess a church of which it may well be proud, irrespective of sectarian prejudices. Already, in its present state, it offers an altogether different appearance from those neglected foundations which provoked the adverse criticism of Anthony Trollope.

All the early churches were built of wood, but stone is gradually coming more generally into use. The wooden buildings nevertheless, taken in combination with their well-kept grounds and overhanging trees, are in many instances extremely picturesque. They form a pleasing contrast to their more pretentious and younger sisters, and at the same time impart an air of antiquity where all else is new and sadly wanting in that soft maturity which time alone can give.

Before the Christchurch Cathedral was built, the "first church" in Dunedin was the finest specimen of ecclesiastical architecture in the colony. It was erected by the Presbyterians as a memorial to Dr. Burns, the pastoral head of their community. It occupies a central position facing the sea, and with its elaborate elevation, its many buttresses and tapering spire, must always be a commanding object in the landscape. Most of the religious denominations in New Zealand possess substantially-built places of worship, and have evidently made considerable efforts to erect buildings worthy of the purpose to which they have been dedicated. But probably no sect in proportion to its means has been so successful in this direction as the Roman Catholic Church. Relying greatly as it does upon external impressions, it has ever been one of its foremost endeavours

to secure buildings which should give to the ordinary observer a practical idea of its importance, be lasting memorials of its power, and help to sustain the energy of its votaries. Its attention is not confined exclusively to the erection of churches, but money is forthcoming for the completion of handsome convents and other buildings. The Romish Church certainly possesses some of the best ecclesiastical edifices in the colony, and it has been a source of wonder to many how a church which here, as in many countries, is practically confined to the working portion of the people can accomplish so much. But the reason is not far to seek. Whatever may be the abstract dogmas which it professes, the leaders of Roman Catholicism have never in any way separated the religious hold which they possess over the consciences of their people from a co-existing authority over the products of their labour. Give to us, they say, of your worldly goods, and you shall have a proportionate measure of indulgence hereafter. Refuse what you ought to give, and it is a chance if you ever escape from the pains of purgatory, or the consequences of your lukewarmness. By asserting this, we do not pretend to asperse the individual Christianity of the members of this church. There are, no doubt, as many good people within the pale of the Romish Church as in any other. We are speaking but of general polity, and the consequences of that polity are patent to all who possess the smallest power of drawing conclusions from well-recognized facts.

Perhaps one of the finest ecclesiastical edifices erected during the present century is the Roman Catholic cathedral in New York. Many years have elapsed since the foundation-stone was laid, and before the building assumed its present form. At times when funds ran

short but few workmen were engaged upon it. Yet step by step, column by column, and arch by arch, the work proceeded until at last the whole pile rose a white resplendent structure of rich artistic beauty. Whence came the means? They used to say the New York servant-girls were chiefly instrumental; that cent by cent, and dollar by dollar, the money was provided, until at last conception became reality. In Ireland, on Sabbath mornings in the days of Sydney Smith, a thousand Roman Catholics were "often huddled together in a miserable hovel, and pelted by the storms of heaven." We have lately been told[1] that "in days nearer to our own the miserable hovel had for the most part given place to a large and handsome church; in many places to a vast and stately cathedral. Nothing could be more remarkable than the manner in which the voluntary offerings of the Irish Catholics covered the face of the country with churches dedicated to the uses of their faith. Often the contributions came in liberal measure from Irishmen settled in far-off countries, who were not likely ever again to see their native fields. Irish Catholic priests crossed the Atlantic, crossed even the Pacific, to ask for help to maintain their churches; and there came from Quebec and Ontario, from New York, New Orleans, and Chicago, from Melbourne and Sydney, from Tasmania and New Zealand, the money which put up churches and spires on the Irish mountain sides." Whether the offerings were altogether so voluntary, in the ordinary sense of the word, as this passage would imply, may fairly be doubted. All creeds alike admit the moral necessity of giving for church and charitable purposes out of the abundance that a man hath; whilst there is but one church which uses, as a further induce-

[1] "History of our own Times," by Justin McCarthy.

ment for so giving, the promise of a few years shorter penal servitude in a future state. We have been informed that the Romish Church in New Zealand has sometimes made a sort of valuation of the property of its members, and on it assessed them *pro ratâ* for building and other purposes. Extensive lotteries have also been resorted to, in which persons of all shades of opinion have taken tickets. The moneys thus obtained, added to the usual demands upon the congregations, have greatly facilitated the erection of the handsome buildings already alluded to as belonging to this body. The priests, most of whom are foreigners, have a bishop at their head. The nuns occupying the convents have for the most part been imported, and are employed in the education of young girls. The houses are fitted up with every convenience, and are open to receive as boarders or pupils all comers irrespective of creed. We have heard of some parents who prefer to send their daughters to be taught in the convents, rather than in the public high schools, but unless they wish them to become converts, to adopt such a course must surely be a grave error. The greater proportion of Roman Catholics in New Zealand come from Ireland, or are Australians of Irish extraction.

The Presbyterians have their Presbytery, and the Wesleyans hold their Conference. Both possess well-trained ministers. They have built substantial churches and chapels, in many cases with comfortable manses or residences attached. They hold their Sunday-schools; they support their establishments by voluntary contributions, and in all respects order the religious education of their young and the conduct of their churches as belongs to good citizens in a Christian country. It is not from churches such as these that any opposition is to be expected to religious teaching in the public schools.

The great opponents to the principle are to be found amongst the Roman Catholics. The latter are not, of course, averse to religious instruction, but they are unwilling that members of their church should even read the Bible in any but their own schools. According to them there is but one true Church; any other teaching than that to be found within its pale is heretical and dangerous. Their desire is to secure from Government grants of money which would enable them to support their own denominational schools; failing this they would prefer to see the Bible, or at all events the English version of it, excluded from the educational system. Were the people of New Zealand strenuously to take up the matter, as no doubt some day they will, it is difficult to see how the Romanists could prevent any measure to this effect from becoming law, for they represent but a small minority of the population. It is also difficult to see how their position would be rendered worse than it is at the present time by an hour being devoted three times a week to Biblical instruction, to be given only to such children as are permitted by their parents to attend.

When writing about the religious condition of any country it is next to impossible to avoid drawing comparisons between the sects which it contains. All that can be done is to abstain so far as possible from remarks likely to promote ill-feeling, or still further widen the breach which unhappily exists between those who should be united by the cords of one great love. Christianity is a blessing which was intended for the greater comfort and assistance of all men, whether living in the past, the present, or the future. It is a principle the true beauty of which consists in its non-exclusiveness. Any individual or body of individuals who claims it as his or their exclusive property is in reality at variance with

its spirit. It is within the province of none to sit judicially upon the consciences of others; but it is the duty of all and each to maintain first principles in their simplicity and entirety. It must ever be painful to those who possess maybe but a faint conception of the unity that shall be, to regard the divisions which render even an approximate unity impossible in the present. But he who by the propagation of extreme views and vague theories still further enlarges existing differences, incurs a grave responsibility, which often, it is to be feared, is rather the result of self-will than of Christian experience. True Christianity is very wide, it admits within its portals the Catholic, the Protestant, and men of all shades of Christian belief. It cannot even be safely asserted that it excludes from its final triumph the African savage or the dreaded cannibal. The Church which may attempt to limit this all-pervading power is to be blamed but not anathematized: to be blamed because it seeks to destroy a freedom not its own to destroy; not to be anathematized, because it possesses all the privileges, and far more than all the privileges of the Afric or the cannibal. The more dogmatic and sectarian a church becomes, the more it shows a spirit of exclusiveness by canons, laws, and customs, the further it is removed from true and Christian liberty. But even so that Church may be doing an appointed work; "for we have many members in one body, and all members have not the same office: so we being many are one body . . . and every one members one of another." Looking at the matter from a standpoint such as this, it is to be hoped that any argument which we have used will be taken as supporting a universally inherited liberty, rather than as narrow-mindedly condemning any separate system.

CHAPTER XVIII.

FRAGMENTS.

It has been stated in the old country, and it has formed the ground of a common complaint in the colony, that runholders and farmers did not enjoy a fair proportion of the profits derived from their labours. It has been said that they were too much in the hands of merchants and middlemen to allow the occupations which they were following to be financially successful. Many instances could be found in refutation of this theory, but at the same time many have attributed their want of success to such a cause. It is sufficiently evident when looking back upon the past that there has been some foundation for the assertion. Producers on the one hand have been too eager to make rapid fortunes, and in their desire to become rich, have frequently entered upon undertakings requiring a considerable amount of borrowed capital to bring them to a successful issue. So long as all went well, nothing occurred to check the prevalence of the system; but when the market value of wool and grain fell to a low point, and land, owing to a total cessation of headstrong speculation, declined in price and became for a time absolutely unsalable, it required a clear head and strong nerve to pull through bad times under the accumulated burden of low prices and a heavy indebted-

ness. On the other hand, merchants and middlemen, many of whom acted as bankers for their clients, undoubtedly did secure such profits as could only be expected in a country comparatively devoid of the usual trade facilities. In the early days of colonization money as ordinary tender was comparatively unknown, and people drew the stores which they required from the general merchant. These were ultimately paid for with the wool, grain, or other marketable commodities which were produced. People did not study over closely, in some cases perhaps not at all, the prices with which they were debited for their stores; nor did they pay sufficient attention to any loss suffered through the heavy charges made on the transport of their produce to a home market. A widespread business laxity was the order of the day, and was considered to be one of the inevitable results attending the position of a colonist. Many became so deeply involved as to be thankful when allowed to carry on at any price. Competition amongst merchants and bankers themselves produced the first signs of any relief to the unsatisfactory position in which the colonists were placed. It was found impossible to exact any longer a profit of 100 per cent. on a pound of tea, or to charge exorbitant rates for the privilege of supplying a customer with a ton of wire. But even so buyers were not always sufficiently numerous to prevent a corner being formed to the detriment of the producer; or merchants so plentiful, and importations so regular, as to prevent large profits being made in the event of a temporary scarcity of some much-needed article. In the first stage of its development the colony found itself overburdened by a huge credit system. In the second there was a considerable reduction in the profits demanded, but in many cases the same principle of barter

and the frequent renewal of bills falling due. During this second period towns and villages had been growing, and multitudes of shops were everywhere established. Bankers, lawyers, artisans, warehousemen, labourers, and all the separate elements of a town population had been called into existence, giving to the shopkeeper a fair assurance of an extensive and extending trade. But the credit system hung like a dense fog over the country. The small farmers bartered their butter and bacon for sugar and tea, and the very shopkeepers, owing to the long credits given to their customers and the heavy interest paid on renewed bills, which they were unable to take up, were incapacitated from supplying goods so cheaply as could have been wished. A gold currency is a luxury which only the richest countries of the old world are able to maintain, and even a cash system requires a balance at the bankers, or the circumstance of a credit resting on comparatively sure and realizable foundations. Money is well known to be but accumulated labour, and consequently a new country is likely to be more or less deficient in the quantity which it possesses of this much to be desired commodity. It has had no time to accumulate; its entire energies have been directed towards the improvement and development of its natural resources. In the case of New Zealand the most trying stage of all is undoubtedly past and gone. People are beginning to accumulate, in some few cases largely, and in a few years they will do so more rapidly and to a greater extent.

It is now nearly three years ago since the first idea of co-operation was started with any practical results. A farmer, named Cooper, who resided at Fairlee Creek, a village some thirty-five miles from Timaru, suggested through the public press the desirability of establishing

an association which should place the cultivator of the soil upon a somewhat better footing. Meetings were called and the subject created considerable interest in the minds of agriculturists. The movement at one time seemed likely to develop into little else than a large company on the limited liability principle, in which the interests of the capitalist would be studied to a greater degree than was desirable in view of the circumstances that made the formation of such an association necessary. Fortunately, at the last moment, better counsels prevailed, and "The Canterbury Farmer's Co-operative Association" was established. From the first it met with a success which has not been impaired up to the present time. Many difficulties had to be encountered, and many prejudices dispelled. It was argued that farmers were too deeply involved to work independently; that they did not possess the necessary business experience; that the idea was altogether chimerical; and that a want of capital would soon put a stop to such a foolish undertaking. Hitherto these ideas have proved altogether delusive, and the movement starting in Timaru has already spread to Christchurch and Invercargill. There is every prospect of the system shortly becoming general throughout the entire length of the two islands. At first it was most difficult for the promoters to make farmers comprehend all that was implied by the word "co-operation," or the benefits which were to be gained from it. But the business once commenced, and proving successful, little difficulty in this respect has been since experienced. The object of these associations is to furnish facilities to the farmer for the shipment or storage of his produce; to make advances on *bonâ fide* securities; to procure for sale to their shareholders seeds, corn-sacks, wool-packs, and all

articles of consumption at the lowest possible prices; to extend the working of the societies in any direction which may appear likely to prove of good service to the members; and to conduct all operations on a cash basis. The benefits obtained are confined exclusively to members. It will be seen that the advantages offered by these associations are very considerable. So long as they exist it is impossible for buyers to drive prices of produce below a fair market value. Were they to attempt to do this, the farmer could either ship his produce on the easiest conditions and at his own risk, or by placing it in the warehouses of his association obtain a reasonable advance upon it, at a fair rate of interest, whilst waiting for better times. By importing fencing-wire, seeds, oils, groceries, stationery, linen, and other articles direct from wholesale houses at home or in the United States, and by paying cash for what they buy from importing houses in the colonies, they obtain concessions which enable them to issue goods to their subscribers at a previously unheard of figure. Instead of a system of long credit, accompanied by the usual carelessness which it engenders, they foster habits of frugality and increase the comforts of the people by asserting the superior economy of cash transactions. The good which they have done is not confined exclusively to their own members, but is shared in a conspicuous degree by the whole community. The competition which they have introduced has caused a great fall in all articles of consumption, and a sensible appreciation in value of articles of production. After paying all expenses of management the net profits are divided as follows. The directors may set apart any sum which they think desirable as a reserve fund, to be applied in the purchase of real estate, in the building of offices and warehouses,

or for other purposes connected with the association. The interest to be paid on the capital furnished by members, is in no case to exceed 7 per cent. Any balance is to be distributed amongst the shareholders *pro ratâ* to the purchases made, or the business done. The liability on every share is limited to 5*l*.

After an existence of less than two years the association in Timaru already consists of nearly 600 members, and the number is gradually increasing. It has secured freehold buildings in the centre of the town, in which the offices and general stores are situated. Contiguous to, and connected with, the trunk line of the Southern Island by a private siding, it possesses other property; one-half of which is covered by a substantially built brick produce store of two stories, whilst the remainder is temporarily used as a coal-yard. Its profits are such that in the first year it was able to pay 7 per cent. on its subscribed capital; return $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on purchases made from it; and put by a considerable sum towards liquidating the mortgages which it had to effect in order to secure its valuable estates. It may give people at home some idea of the value of property in a second-class town in New Zealand to be told, that for the half-acre, removed half a mile from the business centre, and on which the produce store has been built, the association had to pay 2200*l*. in cash. It would be impossible to enumerate all the articles to be found in these, at present, infant undertakings. They include, besides those already mentioned, candles, biscuits, soaps, flour, pickles, sugars, tobaccoes, wines, spirits, beer, cutlery, brushware, stationery, iron-roofing, and hematite paints. The produce which passes through their hands consists of grain, wool, skins, potatoes, and other products of the soil. It must be evident to any who have studied the

principles of co-operation, as existing at home, that the system in the colony is only in the initial stage of its development; whilst at the same time a power has been created which, if properly and carefully directed, may become an integral feature in the future prosperity of the country.

The Christchurch association, although younger by a few months than that of Timaru, has already a total of 800 members. Situated in a more densely populated district, and the centre of an older colonization, it is probable that this society will, before many years have elapsed, become a most important body. In anticipation of a largely increasing business the directors have purchased a convenient block of freehold land, on which they are about to erect extensive offices and warehouses. They have also leased from Government a site adjoining the railway, on which to build grain and wool sheds. They have appointed the same agent in London as the Timaru association, and the two corporations, thus united, will have a considerable purchasing power in the home markets. Up to the present the members of this society have greatly benefited by the ticket system, under which large discounts have been returned by shopkeepers affiliated to the institution, for cash transactions over the counter. When the new warehouses are opened, there is but little doubt that an extensive business will be done in directly imported goods.

An association has also been formed at Invercargill, but of its proceedings we are at present unable to give any detailed information.

The origin and rise of these co-operative societies has been dwelt upon at some length, on account of the important effect which they must exert upon the colony,

and to prove to intending settlers the great strides which have been made during the last few years towards placing producers and consumers on a more favourable footing. The formation of large establishments, whose sole object it is to protect the interests of agriculturists, runholders, and consumers, must effect radical changes by economizing capital, and reducing large intermediary profits. In proportion as they do this will be the savings accumulated by the members for necessary improvements or further investments. They will help to promote an increase of wealth amongst the many, instead of tending to confine it amongst the few. But no arguments which can be placed upon paper will carry such weight as the practical and acknowledged benefits accruing to all classes from similar associations which have, for many years past, been established at home. From 1844, when the Equitable Pioneers first founded their society in Rochdale, to the present year, when the palatial warehouses of far wider reaching institutions may be seen in almost any part of London, co-operation has gradually grown in favour with the middle and lower classes. From that Saturday, when some twenty or thirty poor weavers paid in their first weekly subscription of twopence, the movement has gradually extended, until many thousands of pounds pass over the counter on every working day throughout the twelve months. It has extended until a system has been evolved which, although it may possibly have ruined hundreds, has protected hundreds of thousands. Co-operation is ever valuable, but it is particularly so in a country which is yet but battling with its infancy.

Acclimatization Societies.—In whatever part of the world Englishmen elect to take up their abode, either

temporarily or for good, they rarely can be induced to part for very long together from the sports and pastimes of their native land. Foxhounds and the conventional pink may be found desecrating the tombs of ancient Rome on the Appian way; cricket divides the palm with English beer on the heated plains of India; and enthusiasts have been known to attempt a "go-as-you-please" sort of contest on scorching decks in the Red Sea. It is not, therefore, to be supposed that true sons of Great Britain could be found ready to dwell in a country in which there was but little to shoot, and where some half-wild pigs—with here and there, in favoured localities, a few ducks—gave the only chance of a fair day's sport. Neither could certain people be expected to take their breakfasts comfortably without the accompanying starling on the lawn, or the sparrow to chirp and bristle amongst the branches of their trees. Trout must be turned down in the lakes and streams, nor ought the salmon to be forgotten to give to more ambitious fishermen an exciting run amidst the stones and boulders of the river-beds. Nothing could be more natural than that acclimatization societies should be formed to import all those creatures which were thought desirable, but the presence of some of which experience has proved to be most undesirable. Perhaps nothing could show more conclusively the genial nature of the climate than the marvellous way in which some of these strangers have increased and multiplied. As many descriptions of trees grow ten months out of the twelve, so do many of the importations, whether of the feathery or furry tribe, appear to propagate their kind. At home the hare produces one, two, and occasionally three at a birth, but any such increase is usually limited to a certain period of the year. In New Zealand the

hare is said to increase with extraordinary rapidity. The soil and climate are evidently just suited to its wants, and three, four, it is even said six at a time, are the results of the superior mildness of the seasons. Be this as it may, hares are beginning to be almost everywhere abundant, and in places where, but three years ago, only a solitary specimen was to be seen, eight or ten may frequently be started almost within a stone's throw. This is more particularly the case amongst the rough shelter of the native tussock, whether in the river-beds, or on the more sheltered downs. The settlers know that if they determinedly set to work to exterminate them no great difficulty would be found, but the injury which they do is not as yet so great as to counterbalance the cost which would be incurred in a country where time is money. Meanwhile, they bark trees in young plantations, and on one occasion we saw a turnip paddock so eaten down that it seemed as though a mob of sheep must have been browsing on the tops for several days. It would be to draw a wrong conclusion to suppose that hares are as yet thus general all over the country. It is only in certain districts that they are so plentiful, and a remedy lies with the farmers themselves. An Act has lately been passed which excludes them from the protective clauses of the Game Laws.

It is when we come to rabbits, sparrows, and linnets that the ire of the runholder and farmer is raised against the acclimatization societies and private importers of such pests into the colony. If the climate and circumstances of the country conduce to the increase of hares, they do so with a hundredfold greater force in the case of rabbits and small birds. It may be a matter of dispute as to how many rabbits were

originally imported to form the ancestry of the present generation; but it can be a matter of no dispute that many parts of the back country, especially in Otago, Southland, and Wellington, are completely at their mercy. They do not exhaust their energies by burrowing, but make themselves nests under the protecting shelter of some luxuriant tussock. "Rabbits," it is stated in "Blaine's Rural Sports," "will breed at six months old, bear seven times annually, and bring five young ones each time; supposing this to happen regularly during the space of four years, and that three of the five young at each kindle are females, the increase will be 478·062." Amongst a dense population, and where hawks and vermin thrive, this increase is reduced within comparatively moderate limits. Placed in a region uninhabited, save by flocks of sheep, and destitute of foxes, stoats, and weasels, rabbits become a most formidable power. Were it possible to leave rabbits and sheep to their own devices, in some district favourable to both, the former would, in a few years, by their greater increase, and the destructive power which they exert over grasses, be almost certain to exterminate the latter. In some parts of New Zealand rabbits have increased to such an alarming extent, that many men earn high wages by contracting to clear the country from their depredations. In Southland it is quite common for a man, with a few dogs, to bag fifty in a day, and when snow lies on the ground one hundred can often be secured. At the price ruling for skins these contractors can often make 4*l.* a week, out of which, however, all expenses have to be paid. There is just now an agitation in some quarters for levying a rabbit rate, to be operative throughout the whole of the South Island; but such an extreme measure is

perfectly unnecessary, and would be strongly resisted by the farming interest. Wherever cultivation and population advance hand in hand, rabbits can readily be kept under control. The plains and downs, possessing as they do a clayey and shingly subsoil, render burrowing next to impossible, and render extermination easy. Where rabbits have been turned down upon cultivated lands their increase has never been rapid. In those situations their presence simply serves, as in the old country, to afford the farmer a pleasant relaxation on some bye-day, and helps to give variety to the table. It is generally thought but fair that those persons who invest their money in, and obtain their living from, runs in the infested districts, should themselves pay a little more attention to abate a nuisance the remedy for which lies in their own hands. If they cannot produce much effect individually they can certainly do so by co-operation.

Farmers, on the other hand, complain grievously of what is called "the small bird nuisance." Larks destroy the wheat blade as it issues green and tender from the soil. Sparrows shell the corn as it ripens, carrying, in many cases, their depredations far beyond the headlands; and linnets, besides other delinquencies, make sad havoc among the fruit-trees. Private persons were, it is said, chiefly instrumental in importing rabbits; but acclimatization societies must be held responsible for the small bird nuisance, and that in order that a few gentlemen unconnected with agricultural pursuits might have the pleasure of watching the little pests as they hop from twig to twig, and stimulate sweet memories of home. It is related of Frederick the Great that he caused all the small birds in the country to be destroyed, in order that he might with greater

certainty enjoy his favourite fruit; but that in a short time they had to be replaced, at considerable cost, so as to arrest the spread of caterpillars and other insects, which, unchecked by their natural enemies, destroyed the foliage, and threatened the very lives of the trees. In New Zealand there was at one time a plague of caterpillars, which, climbing up the straw of the cereal crops, nipped off the heads, and were productive of enormous damage. It was argued that the introduction of small birds would remedy this evil, but probably the caterpillars were one of those exceptional visitations which from time to time appear in all countries. They come no one knows whence, they disappear no one knows how. If gentlemen living near to towns wish to enjoy the luxury of the songster tribe, or take an occasional holiday amongst the rabbits, they should at the same time import the sparrow-hawk, stoat, and weasel to keep the doubtful blessings which they have bestowed upon the country within due bounds. As it is, many farmers, who would otherwise do so, are deterred from planting woods and spinnies from a fear of the shelter which these would afford to their almost irrepressible enemies. There was a time when even rabbits were protected in the Australian colonies, and people wonder now how they could have been induced to countenance what has since been proved to be such a deplorable mistake. It is only during the present year that the prohibition has been removed against killing hares, except during a short season of six weeks or two months. And to-day farmers' clubs exist everywhere for the purpose of spreading poisoned grain over the paddocks, to reduce the numbers of small birds which may be seen about every homestead.

Partridges and pheasants have been turned down in

considerable numbers, but except in certain localities they do not appear to increase. The native weka, a bird which cannot fly, and which possesses a general resemblance to a very large partridge, is destructive amongst the eggs, and numerous cats, preferring an unfettered to a domestic life, prowl about the country and make sad havoc with the young. The weka is a bird with a great amount of curiosity. Unless attacked, it possesses no fear, but will walk quietly about among the domestic poultry, on the look-out for something on which to exercise its thievish propensities. Trout appear to thrive in almost any stream, and often grow to a great size. Salmon are as yet a doubtful success. They disappear when turned into the rivers, and no take is yet recorded as having rewarded the exertions of the angler. The llama has been imported, and also a few deer, but their presence is due rather to individual enterprise than to the efforts of the societies.

Taken as a whole, acclimatization societies have done much good, but they have, at the same time, been the means of inflicting a large amount of harm. Were a vote of the colony to be taken, there can be but little doubt that an overwhelming majority would protest against permitting a few persons to import, on their own responsibility, either animals or birds likely to disturb the existing harmony of nature. Possibly not one of the members of these societies was aware of the great inconvenience caused by the introduction of sparrows into New York, or the celerity with which they are apt to increase in a climate thoroughly congenial to their habits. The flocks of gulls which follow close upon the track of the plough have probably had a greater share in eliminating such pests as caterpillars and grubs, than the linnet or the sparrow. The farmer welcomes the gull to

his fields, but from cruel experience looks upon the sparrow as a mortal foe. Acclimatization societies should, in our opinion, chiefly confine their efforts to the introduction of new seeds and plants which cannot by any possibility do harm, but, on the contrary, great good. They have undeniably done much in this direction, and it is only to be regretted that their work has not been confined to providing fish for our streams, valuable timber for our woods, and ornamental shrubs for our gardens.

Otago and Southland, formerly distinct provinces, but since united, have within the last two or three years become favourite districts with the colonists. Two of the leading land companies have lately offered large tracts of country to open competition, and also effected considerable sales by private contract. The "rush" recently has been down South, where the great attraction is the comparative cheapness of land. That this movement has been considerable is indicated by the large amount of money lent on mortgage in these districts, and which has been registered during the past eighteen months. In old countries, mortgages are the sign of a want of vitality, and an almost sure decadence in the fortunes of the mortgager. In new countries, this is far from being the case. Money is very often legitimately borrowed to develop a more or less immediate return from the soil, and such loans have a greater resemblance to the facilities granted to business men in London for fixed periods, and on good security, than to improvident borrowings on ancestral estates which eventually land the debtor in a hopelessly irretrievable position. The difference between borrowing on virgin soil, where the money is to be employed on improvements, and on fully developed property for the purpose of tiding over per-

sonal extravagance, can readily be understood. We believe that good land has recently been sold down South at 10*l.* an acre; but we have before us a list of some twenty farms. the prices of which range from about 3*l.* to 8*l.* an acre, according to situation, and the improvements which have been placed upon them. Otago is to Canterbury what Scotland is to England. In both cases the former are oat-growing, the latter wheat-growing countries. All shades and qualities of land are to be found in both provinces. In both alike elevation produces its usual effect, in both alike alluvial flats possess a greater value than the more rolling downs. But when we find land selling in one province at 9*l.* an acre without improvements, and in the other at about 4*l.* 10*s.* with improvements, both within easy distance of a railway and the one apart from the other only one hundred and fifty miles as the crow flies, it is evident that some radical distinction between the two situations must exist. The greater distance from a central market may have something to do with the difference in price, but the high-flown and attractive advertisements of land agents notwithstanding, probably one chief cause lies in the fact that land down South is somewhat sour. If so, it will require greater expenditure and labour before it can be brought into a proper state of cultivation. Liable to a greater rainfall, and enjoying a less powerful sun, it needs considerable exposure before it can be made equally productive for cereal purposes. It produces a large volume of grass, but experience has proved that even a great abundance of herbage grown on a sour soil, is not so capable of fattening stock, as the shorter and harder bite to be obtained in drier and sweeter situations. No doubt with time, and as capital becomes invested in the land, the soil will be found sweeter, and the country be

developed into a rich pastoral and oat-growing district. The great danger is lest the inexperienced settler, captivated by the apparent cheapness of a farm, should be induced to invest in more land than his means will allow. Under such circumstances he might find it difficult to render his farm either paying or productive. We recall an instance in which a Devonshire labourer, after having worked for some years in South Canterbury, under the farmer who induced him to emigrate, took, under his master's advice, a farm in Southland. The land appeared everything which he could desire; a rich black mould twelve inches deep, but it turned out to be—deaf. It would not respond immediately to the calls made upon it by a man who thoroughly understood his business. He adopted a wise course. He turned up and aired it little by little, grazing stock meanwhile on the remainder. His spare time was utilized by breaking up or ploughing land for his neighbours. An advertisement is at present daily inserted in the papers endeavouring to show persons the advantage to be gained by taking up land in the extreme south. The advertisement admits that "there is a strong prejudice in the minds of some against Southland, on the grounds of its climate and that it won't grow wheat." "All we can say is," it goes on to state, "that it does grow wheat and well, and nearly all over yields, on an average, far more per acre than in this district. Only it is advisable not to trust to spring sowing, but always put it in in the autumn." What further evidence than this could be required in confirmation of the remarks just made? To persons who know of what farming consists, what greater disadvantage could there be than to be forced to sow all the wheat crop in the autumn months? Supposing the short season suitable for sowing to be wet, the farmer is

debarred from relying upon the certainty of a wheat crop at all, and must fall back upon oats. Should the season be favourable, he must either go to the expense of hiring a large force for an operation which, in a better climate, could be accomplished with less outlay, or he must be content to put in a smaller quantity with his own teams. Even supposing the land were to yield more wheat per acre in an exceptionally dry season like the last, it may be doubted whether it would do so on an average of years. Otago, like every other province, has its advantages and its counterpoises. It has its limestone soils, always salable at a high figure, and equal to anything of the kind at home; but it also has land which, although of good value, requires both capital and time to develop its capabilities.

The Chatham Islands are situated some 300 miles to the east of the South Island of New Zealand, and possibly very few persons in the old country remember that they form a part, although, perhaps, an insignificant one, of the somewhat heterogeneous possessions of the British empire. 'Only one island is inhabited; it contains a population of about 400 Europeans and 130 natives. The number of sheep as given by the census of 1881 amounts to over 62,000, and of other stock there were 700 horses and a little over 600 head of cattle. There are two harbours, those of Kaingaroa and Whangaroa. The population, whose facilities for enjoyment must be limited, can vary the monotony of a mutton diet, owing to plentiful supplies of fish, duck, geese, and quail. The bush, although confined to about 40,000 acres is sufficient to give ample supplies of fuel, and to afford timber for many useful purposes. The islanders have not as yet attempted to raise wheat for export; but land is being broken up for turnips, or to be sown down with English grasses.

The chief industry is sheep-farming, which naturally causes the population to be somewhat scattered. The principal place is Waitangi, which, as a recent visitor informs us, consists of a magisterial court-house, a lock-up, a blacksmith's shop, a post-office, a store, two hotels with stores in combination, and a few native wharés. A resident magistrate performs, with the assistance of three justices of the peace, the legal offices that are necessary among this small community. At present there is neither church nor school, but it is to be hoped both will be erected before very long. Communication with the mainland is supplied by a vessel regularly trading to Lyttelton.

The export of frozen meat.—Since the earlier pages of this volume were penned, the first supplies of New Zealand meat have arrived in London. The quality of the mutton has proved all that could be desired. So far as can be at present ascertained only one butcher sold the meat as from New Zealand; the rest palmed it off as English, and at a price of about 9*d.* The cargo realized to the importers from 6*d.* to 7½*d.* per lb., whilst the pigs sold at 6½*d.* These first ventures proved eminently satisfactory to those who initiated what, it is to be hoped, will develop into a rapidly-increasing trade. To landlords and farmers at home, it will be useful to consider to what extent New Zealand can be relied upon as an important purveyor to the London market. During the last three years there appears to have been a trifling decrease in the number of sheep running in the colony. Possibly the rapid increase of rabbits in certain parts of the back country may have in some measure contributed to this result, while the restricted outlet for fat sheep in the colonial markets has hitherto held out but small inducement to the farmer to produce an article which

would at the best have been of uncertain value. A large and increasing trade once found, stock-raising and fattening-off will become an important factor in the farming industry of this country. The 13,000,000 sheep, the 700,000 cattle, and the 200,000 pigs at present existing, form but a small proportion of the total amount of stock which the country is capable of supporting. Were farmers regularly able to sell their mutton at 3*d.* instead of at 2*d.* per lb., it would pay them to grow more turnips, and give more attention to artificial green crops of various descriptions. Persons acquainted with the colony can have little hesitation in asserting that the export meat trade once established, the prosperity of these islands will be more than doubled. In the meantime, and to secure this end, farmers must patiently direct their energies to the improvement of their flocks, and be satisfied with a certainty that the new departure which is about to be made will enrich not only themselves, but all persons connected with the country. The cost of carrying meat across the ocean will before long, by the aid of science and an increased competition amongst shipowners, become cheaper, and a greater economy will be secured both in slaughtering and distributing. There is no district in the world in which sheep can be raised for market purposes with greater advantage than in New Zealand; and if for the moment the extent of the export trade proves disappointing to the most sanguine of its supporters, it is none the less sure that in process of time it will develop into large proportions. But when considering the quantity of meat available for export, it must not be forgotten that the requirements of our own people are each year becoming greater. Almost every week the papers announce the starting of some new manufacturing industry

or the commencement of some public work. These necessarily add to the mouths to be fed, perhaps, in almost as great a ratio as the supplies of food are at present increasing. It does not follow that because the market for fat stock may rule very low for several weeks together, there is therefore a large quantity available for export. All that such a condition implies is, that a certain margin exists, it may be more or it may be less, greater than the present necessities of the market can absorb. It has already been suggested in a previous page that the future prosperity of this country will to a large extent depend upon its manufacturing and commercial enterprise. Should this be the case, should the United States continue to receive the volume of immigration which has lately been poured into its coasts, the English agriculturist who turns his attention to stock has in the long-run but little to fear from foreign competition. Once let the landlord and farmer in the United Kingdom agree upon a mutual basis, on which the latter can work to a profit, and the former receive a fair remuneration for the use of his land, and the agricultural or, at all events, the pastoral interest will be once more prosperous. It is pretty certain that the great depreciation which has taken place at home in landed property and farmers' profits, has been occasioned more by a temporary and unhealthy scramble for land amongst farmers themselves, by an increased expenditure and by bad harvests, than by foreign competition. The latter can do no more than supply the rapidly-increasing population of the towns with the extra amount of food which they require. It has not, nor will it ever displace, or cause any permanent decline in the value of home-grown stock, so long as the wants of the people continue to increase at the present ratio.

Farmers have suffered greatly of late years, yet corn has ruled at a good value. Consequently it is bad seasons and a small yield which have produced the losses complained of. Mutton is still at 9*d.*; yet when it ruled at 7*d.* some years ago farmers were prosperous. It is good to get at the very root, if possible, of a generally prevalent evil: having done so, the remedy is in most cases near at hand. Admit that farmers as a class, in addition to bad harvests, have in one way or another been overtrading, and we will believe. Assert that their sufferings entirely result from foreign competition, and we deny the assertion. A rise in rents, a greater expenditure in forcing and artificial stimulants (such as cake and superphosphates), and domestic management, prove the one position; the high prices obtained for produce disprove the other. So far as can be ascertained, foreign competition, whether from New Zealand or elsewhere, is not likely to be greater, for many years to come (for so many years, indeed, that the present generation need not care to investigate the matter too closely), than will suffice to meet the increasing wants of an ever-growing people. No doubt the colonies can beat the home country in the cheapness and quality of the wool which they grow, and can supply an equally good saddle of mutton; but colonial sheep have for the most part, and for a very long time, been bred for the former purpose, and it will take years before they can supply an overwhelming quantity of the latter. It is quite possible that many thousands of New Zealand sheep will annually be imported into England; but that will be all. It is impossible that the carcases so imported can as yet be computed by millions. The greater part of colonial flocks have been bred solely for wool-producing purposes. Wool has paid well, and it is not

at all certain that mutton will pay better. Those flock-masters who have given 700 or 800 guineas, or lower but still high figures, for a single ram on account of his known descent and the high qualities of his wool, will hesitate before they forsake wool for mutton-growing, even supposing their pastures to be suitable. Perhaps the time may come when New Zealand alone will supply the home market with millions of well-fed carcases, but these sheep are not as yet even lambed. As this question of supply is a matter of considerable importance to many persons at home a table is inserted in the Appendix, giving the last census returns of all animals existing in the colony.[1] A very cursory examination of these statistics will prove the little danger which exists of any enormous supply being forwarded to the old country. This will be still more patent when it is explained that large numbers of our sheep are totally unsuited for fattening purposes, and as casts off from the runs are often sold at three or four shillings apiece.

The Press, commonly called the fourth estate of the realm, is a power which no work pretending to give an account of New Zealand ought to pass by, without mentioning some of its local and peculiar characteristics. Almost every small town possesses a printed sheet, which is dignified by the name of a "paper," and enjoys a circulation in its own district. It scrapes together what local news it can; it copies foreign telegrams from larger rivals, and swells its columns with as many advertisements as it can get paid for—or not, as the case may be. Scissors and paste must occupy a considerable portion of the time devoted by its editorial staff to its weekly or bi-weekly issue. But beyond such lesser lights all the larger towns have daily papers,

[1] See Appendix, Table H.

which command a more extended circulation, and which, besides the local and foreign information contained in their columns, give to their subscribers other matter of generally colonial interest. They have correspondents in the principal towns of the colony and Australia, some even in London and the United States, and from time to time most interesting letters, descriptive of foreign experiences and distant travel, are to be found, together with the results of the latest researches of scientists and literati. The leading articles are generally well written, and if now and again some colonialism be inserted by a slip of the pen, or some favourite mannerism appear from time to time the least bit too often, the cause may be traced to hard work, and the paucity of the staff, rather than to any real inferiority of style or lack of education. One thing may safely be asserted with regard to New Zealand journalism, namely, that it in no way tends to lower the moral tone of the people, but that, on the contrary, it is conducted in the most praiseworthy manner. We know of no paper, like some of the New York Sunday issues, whose demoralizing pages are filled with all that can minister to the greater degradation of their readers. On the contrary, New Zealand journalists do not, as a rule, gloat over what is best left unsaid, or nauseate the respectable portion of their subscribers with odious details of the most fearful crimes. When they treat of such subjects at all, as treat of them in their public capacity occasionally they must, they do so in concise and general terms. It would, of course, be impossible for any one person to agree with all the sentiments expressed by a journal in its leaders or in its editorial notes; and, in the same way, when two or more journals are run in the same town they must invariably rub one against another,

and take opposite sides. In Christchurch, for example, the *Press* is conservative, and the *Lyttelton Times* more or less radical. In Timaru the *Herald* has a decided tendency towards conservatism, and the *South Canterbury Times* an equally decided leaning towards advanced radicalism. In all towns it is the same. The cause we suspect must be attributed to the necessities of business, and it must be confessed that it is of the greatest advantage to the public to hear both sides of an argument. But New Zealand editors are, after all, only mortal; and if occasionally some controversy waxes decidedly warm, unparliamentary language is apt to be used. If it be not so forcible and to the point as that employed by the rival editors of the *Eatanswill Gazette* and *Eatanswill Independent*, it has sometimes been quite sufficiently so as to have supplied the lamented chronicler of the "Pickwick Club" delegates with many a good theme for his fertile pen. But these amenities are now seldom resorted to, and it is to be hoped will be so still less often in the future.

The establishment of so large a number of local journals is one of the signs, if such an expression may be allowed, of a semi-civilization. Separate, and for all practical purposes far removed from each other, the different towns, which form the centre of their immediate neighbourhoods, require a medium through which to make known their wants, and to apprise the public of what their tradespeople have to offer. In the United States for the same reason every local centre has its public print. On the continent, travellers habituated to the wide circulation and extended columns of the London dailies, and forgetful of the numerous local papers which everywhere abound in their own counties, are inclined to look with compassion at the diminutive sheets

of the French, German, and Italian press, and at the comparatively small amount of information which is conveyed by them to their readers. Big too as is the *New York Herald*, and clever and well edited as is the *New York Times*, there are as yet no daily papers in any of the many countries of the world which display so much independent spirit and thoughtful journalism, or possess such power for good and evil over the minds of the people, as do the leading papers of Great Britain. It is a sign of the highest civilization when journals can be conducted at a common centre, from that centre supply wants common to all, and retain sufficient influence over the public to make their casual non-acceptance a deeply-felt grievance. It must be evident that a centralized journalism is productive of greater economy, and powerful to maintain on its staff men of the highest intellectual qualifications. But in these days the first necessity for a man is to receive a daily paper of some sort; it is only a secondary consideration that that paper should be first-rate and comprehensive in every particular. At present the people of New Zealand must, it seems, remain satisfied with their local journals. There is no paper in the colony which possesses a truly national character, or which attempts to do more than give a mere sketch of colonial matters occurring outside its own province. True all journals report the Parliamentary proceedings, and should such an exceptional case arise as a "Maori difficulty," correspondents would be despatched, and full particulars given; but for all that a Canterbury paper is a Canterbury paper, an Otago paper an Otago paper, and an Auckland paper an Auckland paper. A person wishing to know particulars of events happening in any other province than his own, the details of public meetings which have been

held, the important law cases which have been decided, or the commercial aspect of the moment in its markets, must take in a paper published in that province. His own will give only telegraphic notices, or bare summaries, which serve but to whet the imagination without appeasing the appetite. New Zealand papers are all too local and too narrow; as a rule they are for their own immediate district. It is much to be regretted that some truly colonial daily cannot be started, which would both command respect as a national and independent journal and at the same time secure a large circulation. Probably the answer to this would be, "It would not pay;" possibly not, but it is to be sincerely wished it should. It would be a great assistance to the colony to have public matters treated in a colonial and independent spirit apart from provincial or local jealousy.

Most of the principal dailies issue each week a kind of *réchauffé* of what has appeared in their columns during the previous six days. Certain new matter is added, and the whole resembles a typical county paper, the *Field*, the *Queen*, the *Mark Lane Express*, and *Lloyd's Weekly News* rolled into one. These re-issues meet a generally recognized want, and afford to many an opportunity of culling particulars of important events which have not appeared in the columns of their local journal. To add to their attractions two or three chapters of a novel are usually given, somewhat after the manner of the French *feuilleton*.

Besides the ordinary newspaper, various publications are in circulation which more particularly confine themselves to some department, either of thought or science. Among these, perhaps, the most interesting to an intending settler would be the *New Zealand Country Journal*,

a publication at present issued every two months, and containing valuable papers, written by men well acquainted, through a long experience, with all matters of colonial interest. It is published under the auspices of the Canterbury Pastoral and Agricultural Association, and includes original articles on such subjects as stock, manures, ferns, grasses, trees, cultivation, birds, &c. It also serves as a medium to the farmer, through which he may obtain replies to questions on which he requires some practical or scientific information. The Journal reflects great credit on its editors, and is well worthy the support which it receives.

Towns and Villages.—It is one thing to draw descriptions of places, which, although situated in an unknown country, have so much in common with what may be seen elsewhere, as readily to convey to the mind of the reader the personal impressions of the writer; it is another to describe with any chance of success objects at a distance, which have an individuality all their own, and which would seem to be incapable of comparison. Prague with its Jewish quarter, narrow streets, and quaint gables; Rome with its ruined temples and broken columns, its mediæval palaces and empty churches; Philadelphia with its rectangular streets and interminable rows of red-brick houses; Cordova in close proximity to the Andes, with its semi-moresque architecture and deserted squares,—all are places which, from their individuality, present almost insuperable difficulties to the writer who should attempt to convey a true conception of their appearance to those who have never left their native shores. It may be doubted whether Dickens, by his description of Marseilles with its "staring white houses, staring white walls, staring white streets, staring tracts of arid road, and staring hills from which

verdure was burnt away," has given to any who do not know the place a correct idea of its character. It may be doubted whether Scott in his "Anne of Geierstein," however near the mark, and however admirably he may prove the descriptive power of language, conceals from one well acquainted with the scenery, the lakes, the sunshine, and the storms of Switzerland, the fact that the author had never visited the country which he attempted so graphically to describe. Again, who that has dwelt in Venice, or sailed on the Bay of Naples, but feels that Black, when writing "Sunrise," had visited the spots in which he chose to make his puppets live and move and talk? No eloquent descriptions there of sun and scenery, of ancient palaces and dreary *canaletti*, helping to support the artist's pen. The illusion is far more subtle; the figures move as we have seen them move; they act as we have seen them act; they speak as we have heard them speak. We seem to meet upon the Chiaia, and tread the streets together. Descending from the greater to the less, from old age to comparative infancy, it may fairly be questioned whether any description of the towns and villages of New Zealand can convey a correct impression to those who have never wandered in their streets, or personally mingled with the gossips at their bars. It is not England, it is not the Continent. It is not America, still less is it Australia. It is New Zealand by virtue of its own merits or demerits, take it as you will. It would be irrational to compare the colonial towns with any of the cities of Great Britain; they possess neither the buildings, the population, nor the same incessant bustle. It is equally impossible to compare them with the county towns, for they have neither the same antiquity, nor do they suggest the same inter-

minable dulness and inactivity. Perhaps of all the towns in England, that of Reading will most nearly approximate to a New Zealand town. Reading possesses a certain appearance of newness and a certain business activity in its streets; but its suburbs are altogether deficient in that luxuriant growth of vegetation, and that grand background of many-tinted hills, which give to New Zealand towns their charm. Besides, it is all too red with brick. It is at best but a poor comparison, not half sufficiently Italian.

The streets in all New Zealand towns are wide, and for the most part laid off at right angles. Here and there in the oldest parts, diagonal intersections occur. It is no longer allowable to build with wood within the limits of the boroughs, and handsome brick, stone, and concrete buildings are fast supplementing the original timber structures. Many of the banks and more important buildings are in the Italian style, with handsome elevations facing the streets. For the most part they consist of two stories, but here and there buildings of three and even four stories are interspersed amongst the rest. In the principal thoroughfares, and where land is of considerable value, the buildings are contiguous. It is only when the visitor turns his steps from the busier centres, that detached or semi-detached houses and shops are to be found. As we walk through the streets, the shops present all the appearances of those in an English town. Handsome windows permit the display of goods to the best advantage, and within almost every conceivable article is for sale. Stationers', jewellers', music, grocers', drapers', bootmakers', china, ironmongers', and other shops succeed each other in quick rotation, and it is difficult for the new arrival to conceive himself to be walking on a pavement where possibly when he was a child nothing but

tussuck would have met his gaze. Hotels are numerous, comfortably furnished, and well conducted. Sometimes as one sits at lunch or dinner in the coffee-rooms of one of these, the thought occurs, that if the fresh and good things on the table were conveyed to London, and the stale unappetizing dishes, frequently to be found in some of its so-called first-class hotels, brought to New Zealand, Londoners would have less to grumble at, and colonists might console themselves with the idea that after all such culinary laxity was only the consequence of a new and imperfect organization. The charge for a single meal is from two shillings to half-a-crown, certainly not an exorbitant sum to pay for the quality and great variety provided. The hotel bars are usually well patronized, for colonists have large hearts, although, perhaps, the invitation to "come and have a nip" is given a little too frequently. At the same time, but few drunken people are to be seen about the streets. Police regulations are strict, and it is only in out-of-the-way, or up-country houses, that drunkenness is unusually prevalent. In these places cheques are knocked down with astonishing rapidity. A few drinks "all round," and at sixpence a glass, soon make a hole in a one-pound note.

The number of auctioneering firms which are to be found in every town is a peculiar characteristic of the colony. The buildings in which the sales of horses, drays, farm implements, skins, and such like articles take place are both spacious and convenient. On selling days they form a lounge for men arriving from the country, and should any person be wanted, a stroll through two or three of these auctioneering marts will probably reveal the individual. Sales are frequently advertised as follows:—"Messrs. So and So are favoured by Mr. So and So, who is about to leave the country," or "Under instructions

from Mr. D., who is about to break up his celebrated breed of shorthorns." In some instances such reasons may be true, but very often sales take place under pressure from persons who hold a bill of sale over the stock or goods. A public auction is a convenient way of realizing assets at a short notice, and these regular and weekly sales give to those who attend them a pretty correct idea of the current value of all things salable.

The private houses of the better classes are usually situated in what would be called at home the suburbs, or in some cases are grouped round one of the many squares which were reserved for public recreation grounds when the towns were first laid out. Each is surrounded by a garden of greater or less extent, embowered in trees which grow luxuriantly, and gay with many flowers, some of which are known at home only in the greenhouse. Clerks, warehousemen, and artisans live for the most part in their own two or four-roomed dwellings, wood built, and generally erected with funds borrowed from some building society. The calls on the loans thus effected are paid off by instalments, until at last the house belongs to the person who built it. Building societies are largely utilized, and wages being high, have proved of great service to working people in view of the heavy rents which they would otherwise have to pay.

Many of the middle-sized towns have their theatre, the larger ones probably two or three. It is seldom that a season lasts longer than a fortnight, and the performances are given by travelling companies, which include Australia and New Zealand in their circuit, returning sometimes by India or San Francisco. Competition in the theatrical world is evidently getting keen, and it would perhaps surprise frequenters of the London

theatres to see their old favourites starring at the antipodes. Some of the companies are decidedly bad, some indifferent, and a few undeniably good. Theatrical critics are becoming each year more discriminating, and the theatre-going public more fastidious. If matters continue to improve at the present rate, there will shortly be no further employment for second-rate talent in first-class houses. Of all the companies which have lately made the tour of New Zealand, the Williamson Garner troupe has been decidedly the best. It has been travelling with "Patience" and "The Pirates," and in finish, costumes, and stage management, the chorus even included, would compare most favourably with rivals who have drawn crowds to the doors of many a popular theatre in London. Actors and actresses are getting cosmopolitan. Swifter and surer means of transit, with the inducements now offered by countries formerly unknown, have produced as great a change in their profession as in any other. According to the Melbourne journals, Mr. Archibald Forbes, now sojourning in Australia, has lately written under his own signature about "The Patience companies I have seen," and the above company in particular. He claims to rank as a connoisseur in "Patience," having been present at its first nights in London, New York, and San Francisco. He considers Miss Alice Rees, a young lady from Ballarat and now playing at Melbourne, to be superior to Miss Carrie Burton, who filled the title rôle in New York, to sing better than Miss Marie Jensen of the San Francisco company, and to have more sparkle than Miss Leonora Braham of the London company. "All round," he says, "in acting, singing, picturesqueness, and accuracy of costume, scenery, and equipment generally, this 'Patience' Company of yours is quite equal to the

London 'Patience,' whose production Messrs. Gilbert and Sullivan themselves supervised. In some points it is superior, especially in the 'Magnet and Churn' episode, where the grouping and subdued quasi-pedal accompaniments are quite novel and most comically effective." This opinion is endorsed by many who have seen "Patience" companies in both hemispheres.

Among more manly amusements, cricket, football, and athletics hold a place. Most towns have their well-kept cricket ground, and in some instances there are two or three, as at Christchurch. Men in the Colony have not so much spare time to devote to the game as some of those at home, and it is doubtful whether any of the players would be entitled to a position in the first rank, whether when handling the ball, or holding the willow. But cricket, like football, has secured a firm hold, and will probably, during all time, tend to preserve and promote amongst the colonists the same manliness which is one of the commendable characteristics of the people of Great Britain. Almost every district has its annual athletic gatherings; of these, perhaps, the South Canterbury Sports held at Timaru may be considered the national sports of the country. They have always maintained a wide reputation, and the events are frequently contested by aspirants from all parts of the colony. Athletic meetings are often made the opportunity for giving private and public balls; and in bringing people together as they do, contribute, amongst other causes, to promote a country-side feeling and good fellowship, which, without such assistance, might possibly languish, and finally become extinct.

Most of the so-called townships or villages are but a collection of houses scattered here and there over the country. With perhaps the exception of the public

school, they are built entirely of wood. An hotel is the central object, and round it are grouped the store, butcher's shop, and bakery, the smith and wheelwright, and sundry private dwellings. Some of these townships appear to have progressed thus far, and then to stop. Others begin to multiply their stores and trades by two, and gradually to gather a further population, until they present the aspect of thriving and improving villages.

Our work is well-nigh done. It has been its object, from the very first, to place before the reader, and any who have a more or less definite intention of leaving the old world to seek their fortune in the new, some idea of the present condition of the colony, and the state of society which a new-comer may expect to find. So far as possible, personalities have been avoided, the privacy of homes respected, and the jealousies which exist between the different provinces, one struggling with the other for a premier position, ignored. The desire throughout has been to give to persons unacquainted with colonial life a better knowledge, imperfect though even that may be, of the progress being made by a country situated at the very antipodes of a mutual sphere; to tell to those who wish to hear the experiences of a settler who has invested his capital in an adopted land, and who cannot have any conscious motive either to magnify or distort the advantages held out by a hitherto imperfectly developed country; and finally to tear the veil from off those glowing fictions, which, if believed in, can only bring disappointment in their train. It has been attempted to show that New Zealand is no place except for those with at all events some capital, or for labourers, and persons capable of working at a branch of trade. Indeed we know of no Utopian land where people without

means, can live on airy nothing. We know that those who throng in shoals to Manitoba, or the Western States of North America, must toil and toil until in years to come they make a home of what was once a desert. From personal experience we know, because we have seen both countries, that, value for value, improved farms cannot be bought for less in North America than in New Zealand. Ten pounds per acre will procure a better property in Canterbury than in Illinois. We also think that in this island home of ours, a man with any pride of country, race, and family may live a life far happier than in the far-west prairies. Less will occur to wound his susceptibilities, or make him discontented when contrasting his present lot with what he might have done had the case been different.

It is possible that some readers, when first opening these pages, will expect to find more detail and to receive more positive advice by which to shape their future than has been given. It is almost certain, nay a very certainty, that our colonists themselves will dissent from much that has been written, and think that much remains unsaid far worthier of a lengthened notice than many of the seeming trifles jotted down. "Nothing has been said," we hear Nelsonians say, "of Nelson, the very garden of New Zealand. You talk about our coal, our gold, our iron, but not one word of praise in favour of our town and bay, our gardens and our scenery." The reproach is justifiable, but the intention of this book has been to impart general ideas rather than local impressions; to tell of government and commerce; to talk of sheep and education; to show how men are working for a living, and yet may work; and not to sketch the beauties of some pet paradise of nature. And if our fellow-colonists do not agree with all we

have written, the excuse must be,—Opinions always differ. They do not agree amongst themselves with respect to the relative merits of Auckland and Otago, of Canterbury and Hawkes Bay. Some men assert the present system of education to be perfection; others allege the opposite. To some the country would appear to be advancing with rapid strides towards a fatal Communism; others maintain the tendency to be towards a purer Constitutionalism. Where men do congregate, diverse opinions must and always will be held. Admitting this, a writer, to be fair, should strive to be impartial, keep facts and figures by themselves, and draw a line distinct and sharp between what really is, and what is only hypothetic. These rules have been followed so far as possible, but on occasion it has been thought both wise and right to speak out frankly. To those who wish to emigrate it must be plain, on second thoughts, that no amount of detail or pile on pile of facts will build a fortune for them, or replace industry and personal experience. Too many facts are oftentimes misleading. Soils differ, seasons differ, opportunities differ. General impressions are often longest held. Still, even so, the work, beyond its other faults, may seem too general and vague; but if it give to those at home a better knowledge of men and things out here; if it wake one thought for those, their countrymen and friends, who work and toil beyond the sea; or if it add one little spark to all the hope and love this world contains; then let it be,—the offering of a distant son,—"United though Untied."

APPENDIX.

NATIVE LAND COURT.

THE case between the Ngatimaniopoto and Ngatitama tribes, recently decided in this court, may be interesting as showing the mutual relation which exists between the Colonial Government and the Maoris, and as affording an instance of the many difficulties which occur in settling the disputes between tribe and tribe in the matter of tenure of land. It appears that before the British settled in New Zealand, the Ngatimaniopotos drove the Ngatitamas, after two pitched battles, from Potanui, and again fought them at Moturoa and other places. The defeated tribe went south, saying that they were going to procure guns in order to try and regain their lost possessions. But with few exceptions they never returned to dispute the ownership of Potanui since 1840, until the last couple of years. Whatever the feuds may have been between the two tribes before the colony was settled, the opinion of the Judge was that it had nothing whatever to do with the present time. The Ngatimaniopotos had won the land by conquest, and had held the land since undisputed. In giving his decision Judge Fenton said:—"The principle of Maori law on which this Court has acted in cases of this sort, is very simple, very intelligible, and in truth could not be otherwise. A conquest, attended by the expulsion of the defeated party from their land, conferred no title on the conquerors unless followed by occupation. A conquest, resulting in the complete expulsion of the defeated or the abandonment of their territory under the stress of force, and followed by permanent occupation of land by the conquerors, conferred a perfect title, which endured until they, in their turn, were ejected. When the Court's authority was introduced into New Zealand, of course a new state of things came with it, and private warfare being illegal, no right could be acquired by force. It therefore followed that any conquering tribe found at that epoch in the perfect occupation, by which I mean occupation un-

disturbed and not diminished in its character by hostile force, of land from which other owners had been previously expelled, or which they had abandoned from fear, would retain its rights over that territory unless it admitted the return of the expelled people by consent, express or tacit; nor would it be necessary to eject intruders by force, for the exercise of such force having since 1840 been in the contemplation of the law illegal, if discontent is signified, that is sufficient. The squattings of Ngatitamas on this block, which appear to have been attempted before 1858, were trivial and most certainly not made with the consent of the Ngatimaniopotos; and failing that consent, would not fail to disturb the title as it existed in 1840. At that time it was perfect. How far that title is affected by an agreement made by chiefs of the Ngatimaniopotos and the Ngatitamas in 1868, as the price of their allegiance to Tawhiao as King, remains to be determined."

NATIVE RESERVES BILL.

DURING the present session the Native Minister has introduced a Bill for permanently settling the native land difficulty. The Bill is so framed as to include within its scope not only the reserves set apart by Government for native uses, but all lands at present occupied by or belonging to the Maoris. Its object is to protect the aborigines from the many land sharks who have for too long a time infested the country. Under the Bill it is proposed to invest all the native reserves in a Public Trustee, who is to manage them on behalf of the natives concerned. Besides this, all native landholders can, if they choose, invest their lands in the same Trustee, who will administer them for the present benefit of the owners. The Trustee may lease the lands for twenty-one years, but cannot sell them. The rents are to be paid to the native owners. Provision is made to prevent these leases from being fraudulently converted into sales, the intention being that the lands should be inalienable. The Bill is not compulsory upon the natives, but is designed to protect those who are willing to submit to its provisions from the attacks of unscrupulous adventurers. In all cases care is to be taken that a certain quantity of land is set apart for the habitation and occupation of those who have vested their property in the Trustee. Should it happen that no owners remain to receive the rents of any trust, the lands are to be held for such purposes as the Governor may direct. All proceedings of the Trustee are, from time to time, to be presented to the Chambers in Wellington.

STANDARDS OF EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS,

issued by His Excellency the Governor in Council under "The Education Act, 1877."

REGULATION 7.

Standard I.

Reading.—Sentences composed of words of one syllable, and common words of two syllables, to be read intelligently.

Spelling.—Easy words of one syllable.

Writing.—The small letters and the ten figures on slate at dictation.

Arithmetic.—Counting and oral addition by twos, threes, fours, and fives, up to 100; numeration and notation to 999; addition sums of not more than three columns; multiplication of numbers not exceeding 999 by 2, 3, 4, and 5. [NOTE.—The numeration must be applied to the addition and multiplication, and the multiplication known to be a compendious method of addition.]

Object lessons, singing, disciplinary exercises, &c., as prescribed in Regulation 9.

Standard II.

Reading and Definition.—Sentences containing words of two syllables, and easy words of more than two syllables, to be read intelligently, and the meanings of the words to be known.

Spelling.—Easy words of two syllables.

Writing.—Short words in copy-books, not larger than round-hand. On slate: Capital letters and transcription from reading book of Standard II.

Arithmetic.—Numeration and notation of not more than six figures; addition of not more than six lines, with six figures in a line; short multiplication, and multiplication by factors not greater than 12; subtraction; division by numbers not exceeding 12, by the method of long division, and by the method of short division; mental problems adapted to this stage of progress; multiplication tables to 12 times 12.

Geography.—Knowledge of the meaning of a ground plan, and of a map; of the principal geographical terms; and of the positions of the continents, oceans, and larger seas.

Other Subjects.—As prescribed in Regulation 9.

Standard III.

Reading and Definition.—Easy reading book to be read fluently and intelligently, with knowledge of the meanings of the words, and with due regard to the distinction of paragraphs, as well as of sentences.

Spelling.—From the same book; knowledge of words having the same or nearly the same sound, but differing in meaning; dictation of easy sentences from the reading book of a lower standard.

Writing.—Longer words and sentences, not larger than round-hand; transcription from the reading book of Standard III., with due regard to punctuation and quotation marks.

Arithmetic.—Numeration and notation generally (one million to be taken as the number of which one billion is the second power, one trillion the third power, and so on); long multiplication and long division; the four money rules (excepting long multiplication of money); money tables; and easy money problems in mental arithmetic.

Grammar and Composition.—The distinguishing of the nouns (and pronouns used in the same way as nouns) and verbs in easy sentences; also of articles and adjectives (and pronouns used in the same way as adjectives); and very simple exercises in composition, to test the pupil's power of putting his own thoughts on familiar subjects into words.

Geography.—Knowledge of the chief towns of New Zealand, and of the principal features of the district in which the school is situated; of Australian Colonies and their chief towns; of the countries and capitals of Europe; and of the principal mountains and rivers of the world.

English History.—Knowledge of the chronological order in which the following periods stand: Roman, Saxon, Norman, Plantagenet, Tudor, Stuart, Brunswick; and of a few of the more interesting facts connected with each period.

Other Subjects.—As prescribed in Regulation 9.

Standard IV.

Reading and Definition.—An easy book of prose and verse.

Spelling and Dictation.—Suited to this stage, as represented by the reading book in use; the dictation to exhibit a knowledge of the use of capitals and of punctuation, but (at inspection) to be confined to prose.

Writing.—Good copies in a hand not larger than round-hand, and transcription in poetry.

Arithmetic.—Long multiplication of money; reduction; the compound rules applied to problems in weights and measures; practice, and the making out of bills of accounts and receipts; tables of weights and measures; mental arithmetic to correspond.

Grammar and Composition.—The distinguishing of all parts of speech in easy sentences; the inflexions of the noun, adjective, and pronoun; letter-writing on prescribed subjects; addressing of letters and envelopes.

Geography.—Knowledge of the countries of the world, with their capitals, and of the principal seas, gulfs, mountains, rivers, lakes, capes, straits, islands, and peninsulas on the map of the world; geography of Australia in outline; and the drawing of rough maps of New Zealand, with one set of principal features (as capes, or towns, or rivers). [In this and the subsequent standards, scholars will be expected to know the situation of places mentioned in their reading books.] Mathematical geography: The form of the earth, day and night, the seasons, the zones, meridians, and parallels; and climate in this connexion.

English History.—The succession of houses and sovereigns from 1066 A.D. to 1485 A.D., and the leading events of the period known in connexion with the reigns and centuries to which they belong, and in their own character. [Precise dates will not be required, though a knowledge of them may assist in referring each event to the proper reign.]

Elementary Science, &c.—See Regulation 9.

Standard V.

Reading and Definition.—A book of general information, not necessarily excluding matter such as that prescribed for Standard IV.

Spelling and Dictation.—Suited to this stage.

Writing.—Small-hand copies in a strict formal style, and text-hand; transcription of verse in complicated metres, and of prose exhibiting the niceties of punctuation.

Arithmetic.—Proportion; simple interest; the easier cases of vulgar fractions, and problems involving them; mental arithmetic.

Grammar and Composition.—Inflexions of the verb; parsing (with inflexions) of all the words in any easy sentence; a short essay or letter on a familiar subject, or the rendering of the sense of a passage of easy verse into good prose; analysis of a simple sentence.

Geography.—Knowledge of places of political, historical, and commercial importance in New Zealand, in Great Britain, and on the European Continent; and the drawing of outline maps of New Zealand, Great Britain, and Europe. Physical Geography: Distribution of land and water; mountain and river systems; changes effected by the agency of water; and climate as influenced by mountain, plain, and sea.

English History.—The period from 1485 A.D. to 1714 A.D., treated as the former period is treated in Standard IV.

Elementary Science, &c.—See Regulation 9.

Standard VI.

Reading.—A book containing extracts from general literature.

Spelling and Dictation.—Suited to this stage.

Writing.—The copying of tabulated matter, showing bold head-lines, and marking distinctions such as in letter-press require varieties of type (e.g. the copying of these printed standards, or of a catalogue showing division into groups).

Arithmetic.—Vulgar and decimal fractions; interest and other commercial rules; square root, and simple cases of mensuration of surfaces; mental arithmetic generally.

Grammar and Composition.—Complete parsing (including syntax) of simple and compound sentences; prefixes and affixes, and a few of the more important Latin and Greek roots, illustrated by a part of the reading book; essay, or letter; analysis of easy complex sentences.

Geography.—Knowledge of places of political, historical, and commercial importance in Asia, North America, and the British Possessions. Physical Geography: Atmospheric phenomena, winds, rain, ice; distribution of the animals and plants of greatest value to man.

English History.—The succession of houses and sovereigns, and the leading events of each reign, from the earliest times to the present (precise dates not required); also the elements of social economy.

Elementary Science, &c.—See Regulation 9.

Regulation 8.

In the application of any standard to the case of an individual scholar, marked deficiency in all or most of the subjects, or serious failure in any two subjects, shall be reckoned as failure for that standard; but serious failure in any one subject alone shall not be so reckoned, if it appear to be due to some individual peculiarity, and be not common to a large proportion of the class under examination.

Regulation 9.

Although the scholars will be allowed to pass the standards as defined in Regulation 7, the Inspector will inquire, and, if necessary, report as to the kind and amount of instruction in other subjects in the case of each class, as follows:—

Class preparing for Standard I.

Object and Natural History Lessons.—A syllabus of the year's work done to be given to the Inspector, who will examine the class upon some subject selected from the syllabus.

Knowledge of the Subject-matter of the Reading Lessons.

Repetition of Easy Verses.—Syllabus and test as for object-lessons.

Singing.—A suitable number of easy and suitable songs in correct time and tune, and at a proper pitch.

Disciplinary Exercises or Drill.

Needlework.—See Regulation 10.

Drawing.—See Regulation 11.

Class preparing for Standard II.

Object-lessons, and Lessons in Natural History and on Manufactures. —A syllabus as in Standard I.

Knowledge of Subject-matter in Reading Lessons.

Repetition of Verses.—Syllabus showing progress.

Singing.—Songs as before; the places of the notes on the stave, or the symbol used for each note in the notation adopted; to sing the major diatonic scale and the successive notes of the common chord in all keys.

School Drill.

Needlework and Drawing.—See Regulations 10 and 11.

Class preparing for Standard III.

Knowledge of Common Things.—A syllabus as for object-lessons in the former standards.

The Subject-matter of the Reading Lessons.

Repetition of Verses.—Syllabus showing progress.

Singing.—Easy exercises on the common chord, and the interval of a second in common time and in $\frac{3}{4}$ time, not involving the use of dotted notes; use of the signs p., f., cres., dim., rall., and their equivalents; songs as before, or in common with the upper part of the school.

Drill.

Needlework and Drawing.—See Regulations 10 and 11.

Class preparing for Standard IV.

Elementary Science.—See Regulation 12.

Recitation.—A list of pieces learnt, and one piece (or more) specially prepared for the examination.

Singing.—Easy exercises on the chords of the dominant and sub-dominant, and in the intervals prescribed for Standard III.; exercises in triple time; use of dotted notes; melodies, rounds, and part songs in com-

mon with the higher standards. [NOTE.—It will suffice if this class take the air of the songs, while the other parts are sung by the more advanced classes, and it may be useful to let older scholars lead the parts in a round.]

Drill.

Needlework and Drawing.—See Regulations 10 and 11.

Classes preparing for Standards V. and VI.

Elementary Science.—See Regulation 12.

Recitation.—Of a higher order than for Standard IV.

Singing.—More difficult exercises in time and tune; strict attention to expression-marks.

Drill.

Needlework and Drawing.—See Regulations 10 and 11.

REGULATION 10.

All girls in every public school in which there is a female teacher shall learn needlework, and if the Inspector is satisfied that the instruction in this subject is thoroughly systematic and efficient, he may reduce the minimum number of marks for passing the standards by 10 per cent. in favour of the girls as compared with the boys. The classes for needlework shall be approximately the same as those for the standards, but such changes of children from one class to another in this subject may be made as shall be found necessary to ensure the passing of every child through the different stages in the order here stated.

First.—Threading needles and hemming. (Illustration of Work: Strips of calico, or a plain pocket-handkerchief.)

Second.—The foregoing, and felling, and fixing a hem. (Illustration: A child's pinafore.)

Third.—The foregoing, and stitching, sewing on strings, and fixing all work up to this stage. (A pillow-case, or woman's plain shift, without bands or gathers.)

Fourth.—The foregoing, and button-holing, sewing on buttons, stroking, setting in gathers, plain darning, and fixing. (A plain day or night shirt.)

Fifth.—The foregoing, and whipping, a tuck run, sewing on frill, and gathering. (A night-dress with frills.)

Sixth.—Cutting out any plain garment, and fixing it for a junior class; darning stockings (fine and coarse) in worsted or cotton; grafting; darning fine linen or calico; patching the same; darning and patching fine diaper.

If knitting is learnt, it shall be in the following order: A strip of plain knitting; knitted muffatees, ribbed; a plain-knitted child's sock; a long ribbed stocking.

Regulation 11.

The order of instruction in drawing shall be as follows:—

Standard I.—Freehand outline drawing from black-board exercises (on slate).

Standard II.—The same, but more advanced, and with some use of drawing book.

Standard III.—Freehand outline drawing in drawing book (from copies).

Standard IV.—Outline drawing from models and other solid objects.

Standard V.—Practical geometrical drawing.

Standard VI.—Practical perspective drawing.

Regulation 12.

The teaching of elementary science for Standards IV., V., and VI. shall embrace elementary physics, a small part of elementary chemistry, elementary mechanics, and elementary physiology; and shall be sufficient for and applied to the purposes of illustrating the laws of health, the structure and operation of the simpler machines and philosophical instruments, the simpler processes of agriculture, and the classification of animals and plants. The head-teacher of each school shall prepare a syllabus showing the distribution of these subjects over a three-years' course, having regard to the amount and order of the information contained in the reading-books used in the school. The Inspector will see that the syllabus is sufficient, and examine each class in that part of the work with which the class has been engaged during the year. The syllabus shall present a suitable arrangement of the matter contained in the following programme (the portions enclosed within square brackets being, however, optional):—

Conditions of matter—solid, liquid, gaseous; force—gravitation, heat, chemical affinity, electricity, magnetism; properties of solids—compactness, porousness, comparative hardness, brittleness, toughness, &c.; forms of bodies; inertia of rest and motion; comparative density and specific gravity; acceleration; the mechanical powers; pressure of liquids and gases; pumps, barometers, hydraulic press, &c.

Vibrations; velocity of sound and light; reflection, refraction, &c.; the magnifying-glass and the prism; heat expansion, convection, conduction, radiation; thermometer; ventilation; steam; mechanical mixture and chemical

combination; [oxygen; hydrogen; nitrogen; chlorine; carbon; sulphur; phosphorus; lime; iron;] composition of water and of air; combustion; [acid and alkali].

[Characteristics of saccharoids; of oils and fats; of fermentation products; of albuminoids; frictional and voltaic electricity; the electric machine; the battery; currents;] the build of the human body, and names and positions of internal parts; constituents of blood, muscle, bone, and connective tissue; alimentation; circulation; respiration; [the kidneys and their secretion; animal heat; organs of sense; principal divisions of the animal kingdom, and of the vegetable kingdom].

Standard IV., as defined in these Regulations, shall be the standard of education prescribed under "The Education Act, 1877," Section 90, Sub-section 4.

UNDER THE STATUTES OF THE SENATE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW ZEALAND approved, in pursuance of Section 10 of "The New Zealand University Act, 1874," by the Governor in Council at Wellington, the 18th day of May, 1882, it is enacted that—

I. The subjects of examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts shall be,—1. Latin Language and Literature; 2. Greek Language and Literature; 3. English Language and Literature; 4. Modern Languages and Literature; 5. General History and Political Economy; 6. Jurisprudence and Constitutional History; 7. Mathematics; 8. Physical Science, to include (*a*) Heat and Radiant Heat, and (*b*) Sound and Light, or, at the option of the candidate, Electricity and Magnetism; 9. Chemistry; 10. Natural Science, any one of the following branches: (*a*) Geology and Mineralogy, (*b*) Zoology, (*c*) Anatomy and Physiology, (*d*) Botany; 11. Mental Science. The subjects will be divided as follows:—

(1.) Latin Language and Literature.—(Two papers.)—(*a.*) Selected portions of the works of one prose and one verse author; translation of simple unseen passages from Latin into English. (*b.*) An easy passage or passages for translation from English into Latin prose; questions on grammar.

(2.) Greek Language and Literature.—(Two papers.)—(*a.*) Selected portions of the works of one prose and one verse author; translation of simple unseen passages from Greek into English. (*b.*) An easy passage or passages for translation from English into Greek prose; questions on grammar.

(3.) English Language and Literature.—(Two papers.)—(*a.*) The

origin, history, and structure of the English language, and selected portions of one or more authors. (*b.*) An account of one period of literature, and a short essay on some subject arising out of the works selected under (*a*).

(4.) Modern Languages and Literature.—(Two papers)—French, or German, or Italian, at the option of the candidate. (*a.*) Questions on grammar and composition. Passages for translation from and into English and the language chosen. (*b.*) Questions on a period of the literature of the language, and selected authors of the period.

(5.) General History and Political Economy.—(Two papers.)—(*a.*) General History: Period to be selected year by year. (*b.*) Political Economy: The production, distribution, exchange, and consumption of wealth; the law of population; emigration, immigration; strikes; trades unions; socialist theories; land tenures; free trade and protection; and the colonial policy of England.

(6.) Jurisprudence and Constitutional History.—(Two papers.)—(*a.*) Jurisprudence: Nature of positive law; sources of law; scientific classification of law, together with knowledge of the system adopted in Roman law. (*b.*) Constitutional History: The constitutional history of England.

(7.) Mathematics.—(Three papers.)

(*a.*) Elementary Geometry.—Euclid, Books I., II., III., IV., and VI., together with the definitions of Book V. Trigonometry.—The elementary parts of plane trigonometry so far as to include the principal properties of logarithms, the use of logarithmic tables, and the solution and property of triangles, with easy transformations and examples.

(*b.*) Algebra.—Definitions and explanations of algebraical signs and terms; addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of algebraical quantities, including fractions and surds; the elementary rules of ratio and proportion; the square and cube roots; easy equations of a degree not higher than the second, and questions producing such equations; arithmetical, geometrical, and harmonical progressions; permutations and combinations; and the binomial theorem; with proofs of the rules, and simple examples.

(*c.*) Elementary Mechanics and Hydrostatics.—Treated so as not necessarily to require a knowledge of pure mathematics greater than the standard prescribed for the degree of a Bachelor of Arts, namely, the composition and resolution of forces acting on a point and on a rigid body on one plane; the mechanical powers; the centre of gravity; the fundamental laws of motion; the laws of uniform and uniformly accelerated motion, and of falling bodies; the pressure of liquids and gases; the equilibrium of floating bodies; specific gravities; and the principal instru-

ments and machines the action of which depends on the properties of fluids; with simple problems and examples.

(8.) Physical Science.—(Two papers.)

(*a.*) Heat, including Radiant Heat.—Temperature; expansion; conduction and consection; latent heat; specific heat; calorimetry; hygrometry; sources of heat; the steam-engine; conservation and dissipation of energy; and radiation, absorption, transmission, reflection, and refraction of heat.

(*b.*) Sound and Light.—The production and propagation of sound; vibrations of sounding bodies; interference; and the physical theory of music. Nature, production, and propagation of light; absorption; reflection; refraction; prismatic dispersion; spectra; fluorescence; interference; plane polarization; and the principal optical instruments and vision. Or,—Electricity and Magnetism.—Production and properties of statical and voltaic electricity; induction, including secondary currents; thermo- and magneto-electricity; electro-dynamics; magnetism and diamagnetism; the electric telegraph; and electric measurements.

(9.) Chemistry.—(Two papers.)—The chemical relations of cohesion, heat, light, and electricity; the general principles of chemical combination, notation, and nomenclature; the description and classification of the more important elements and compounds, and of organic bodies; qualitative analysis and calculations of chemical problems; and the description of the leading chemical theories.

(10.) Natural Science.—Either of the following branches:—

A. Geology and Mineralogy.—(Two papers.)—Systems of crystallization; physical properties and chemical composition of the more important minerals; origin and classification of rocks; formation of rock-beds and structure of rock-masses; denudation and movements of the surface of the earth; chronological classification of rocks; the origin of the surface features of the earth; and the laws and generalizations of palæontology.

B. Biology.—(Two papers.)—(*a.*) General principles of biology, including those of physiology, of distribution, and of classification. (*b.*) One of the following:—(1.) Zoology.—Animal morphology, the principal characters of the chief groups of animals, and the main facts of their distribution in time and space. (2.) Botany.—Vegetable morphology, including histology, the principal characters of the chief groups of plants, and the main facts of their distribution in time and space. (3.) Anatomy and Physiology.—Human anatomy and physiology.

A candidate in natural science will be required, on presenting himself for examination, to furnish to the Supervisor a certificate from a teacher of the subject or branch subject that he has passed a practical examination in such subject, as follows:—For Geology.—Determination

by physical characters of minerals and rocks; determination of fossils; construction of geological sections. For Zoology.—Dissection and microscopical examination of types of four different groups of invertebrate animals, and of the different groups of vertebrate animals. For Anatomy and Physiology.—Dissection of the human body. For Botany.—Dissection and microscopical examination of types of four different groups of cryptogamic plants, and of eight different orders of phanerogamic plants.

(11.) Mental Science.—(Two papers.)—(*a.*) Psychology.—Outlines of the physiology of the nervous system; instinct; the senses and the intellect; abstraction; perception. Ethics.—The psychology of the will; the ethical standard; the moral faculty; the hedonist, intuitionalist, and utilitarian methods. (*b.*) Logic.—Deductive and inductive logic.

II. No candidate shall be admitted to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, unless he shall have passed in at least five of the above subjects of examination, of which two must be Latin and Mathematics.

III. The examination may be passed in two sections. Either two or three subjects of examination, one of which must be either Latin or Mathematics, shall constitute the first section, which may be taken at the end of the second or any subsequent year, and the remaining subjects shall constitute the second section, which may be taken at the end of the third or any subsequent year; or, at the option of the candidate, all the subjects may be taken together at the end of the third or any subsequent year.

IV. No student shall be admitted to the final examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts who has not kept three years' terms at some institution affiliated to the University of New Zealand, unless he shall have been admitted as an undergraduate under the Statute of Admissions *ad eundem*, or unless he shall be a teacher permitted to proceed to the degree under the provisions hereinafter contained.

* * * * * *

VII. Teachers in Affiliated Institutions, and certificated teachers of good repute in any school established or conducted under the provisions of an Act of the General Assembly or of a Provincial Council of this colony, having been in the practice of their profession for at least five years, may be admitted on the recommendation of the Chancellor or of the Vice-Chancellor to the examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, to be passed either in one or two sections, on payment of the ordinary fees, without matriculation and the keeping of University terms; and on passing that examination shall be entitled to all the other privileges of graduates of the University of the same standing, anything in other regulations of the University notwithstanding: provided that

under this clause no teacher shall be admitted to the first section of his examination beyond the B.A. examination for the year 1883: provided also that every teacher admitted to examination under this clause shall give three months' notice to the Chancellor of the subjects on which he shall elect to be examined.

TABLE A.

RETURN of the Value of Imports and Exports at the several Ports of the North Island of New Zealand, during the years ending 31st December, 1880, and 1881. Compiled from the *New Zealand Gazette.*

	1880.			1881.		
	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Auckland .	1,242,871	758,271	2,001,142	1,490,124	813,113	2,303.237
Thames .	9,101	1,600	10 701	10,948	...	10,948
Russell .	3,969	5,319	9,288	5,459	4,366	9,825
Whangaroa	...	7,346	7,346	...	9,132	9,132
Hokianga .	...	2,330	2,330	...	2,452	2,452
Mongonui .	...	499	499	370	37	407
Kaipara .	8,366	31,175	39,541	4,776	35,540	40,316
Poverty Bay	8,209	1,302	9 511	15,619	20,284	35,933
New Plymouth .	31,157	...	31,157	47,665	400	48,065
Wanganui .	35,386	94	35,480	39,986	588	40,574
Wellington	958,706	919,944	1,878,650	1,028,148	763,187	1,791,635
Napier .	128,328	555,474	683,802	182,195	460,846	643,041
Tauranga .	1,812	...	1,812	1,101	...	1,101
Foxton .	2,714	...	2,714	2,225	...	2,225
Total .	2,430,619	2,283,354	4,713,973	2,828,646	2,110,245	4,938,891

TABLE B.

RETURN of the Value of Imports and Exports at the several Ports of the South Island of New Zealand, during the years ending 31st December, 1880, and 1881. Compiled from the *New Zealand Gazette.*

	1880.			1881.		
	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Imports.	oExports.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Nelson .	198,457	4,700	203,157	204,352	8,455	212,807
Westport .	27,624	717	28,341	27,226	260	27,486
Greymouth	109,176	250,147	359,323	112,286	269,870	382,156
Hokitika .	65,606	243,410	309,016	68,624	141,398	210.022
Lyttelton .	1,245,051	1,525,416	2,770,467	1,390,270	1,447,127	2,837,397
Akaroa .	1,333	...	1,333	...	...	...
Timaru .	82,770	54,822	137,592	116,767	149,946	266,713
Oamaru .	46,935	35,133	82,068	68.601	119,254	187,855
Dunedin .	1,797,516	1,644,951	3,442,467	2,440,880	1,529,764	3,970,644
Invercargill	137,706	309,817	447,523	176,579	284,547	461,126
Riverton .	5,944	...	5,944	3,216	...	3,216
Picton .	1,656	...	1,656	3,065	...	3,065
Wairau .	11,125	...	11,125	16,526	...	16,526
Havelock .	47	...	47	...	...	...
Kaikoura .	446	...	446	...	...	...
Total .	3,731,392	4,069,113	7,800,505	4,628,392	3,950,621	8,579,013

TABLE C.

RETURN of the Value of Imports and Exports at the Ports of New Zealand, during the years ending 31st December, 1880, and 1881. Also showing the relative trade of the North and South Islands.

	1880.			1881.		
	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
North Island .	2,430,619	2,283,354	4,713,973	2,828,646	2,110,245	4,938,891
South Island .	3,731,392	4,069,113	7,800,505	4,628,392	3,950,621	8,579,013
Grand Total .	6,162,011	6,352,467	12,514,478	7,457,038	6,060,866	13,517,904

RETURN of the Value of Gold exported from the various Ports of New Zealand, during the years 1880 and 1881, as published in the *New Zealand Gazette.*

	1880.	1881.
	£	£
Auckland	176,416	141,326
Wellington	354	21
Picton	5,650	4,495
Nelson	18,839	20,441
Westport	67,259	52,483
Greymouth	284,124	306,542
Hokitika	216,905	143,559
Lyttelton	90	...
Oamaru	...	650
Dunedin	418,979	358,335
Invercargill	38,636	52,938
	£1,227,252	£1,080,790

N.B.—The above returns are published on Government authority, but a slight analysis of their contents is sufficient to show that they are not altogether reliable. For example, the total export from the Port of Greymouth for the year 1880 is set down as being of the value of

£250,147. The export of gold alone, for the same year, is put at £284,124. It seems, too, most extraordinary that a coal port like Westport should have an import trade of £27,624, whilst it is given as exporting produce of the amount of £717. Possibly the export returns are mixed up with those of some other port, making the total results more or less accurate.

TABLE D.

RETURN showing the amounts contributed to the Colonial Revenue by each Province, in the classes specified below, during the financial year 1881–82.

	Customs.	Stamps.	Land and Property Tax.	Beer Tax.	Land Revenue.	Total by each Province.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Auckland . . .	315,858	25,431	31,829	12,764	37,661	423,543
Taranaki . . .	13,342	2,716	3,902	1,047	84,164	105,171
Wellington . .	231,793	26,711	37,162	7,245	23,810	326,721
Hawke's Bay .	42,851	8,555	13,778	1,980	5,674	72,838
Nelson	55,981	4,313	8,198	2,368	9,730	80,590
Marlborough . .	6,732	1,532	4,805	808	3,132	17,009
Canterbury . .	249,236	43,424	72,307	14,141	92,032	471,140
Westland . . .	54,072	2,512	812	126	1,914	59,436
Otago	500,224	45,927	79,609	16,932	247,446	890,138
Total .	1,470,089	161,121	252,402	57,411	505,563	2,446,586

This table is inserted to show in some degree the comparative wealth and resources of the several Provinces. In explanation it may be mentioned that the large sum contributed to "land revenue" by Otago arises from the many leasehold runs contained in that Province. The land and property tax, being raised on a property assessment, is a better indication of the relative standing of the Provinces towards each other in so far as regards freehold estate and accumulated capital. The beer tax shows that Auckland, Canterbury, and Otago are the chief seats of the

brewing industry—the brewers being responsible for this tax to Government. Because Otago pays the heaviest tax for beer, it does not follow that it is all consumed in a Province which, as a matter of fact, sends beer largely into Canterbury. Again, Dunedin is a central depôt, and of the large amount paid by her to customs a considerable proportion should fairly be attributed to the business which, though passing through the port, finds its real outlet in South Canterbury. The force of these remarks can be better estimated by inspecting the columns devoted to stamps and property tax, in which, although Otago shows a certain apparent superiority, there is nothing to prove that she does so in reality, when her far more extended area is taken into consideration.

TABLE E.

New Zealand Railways.

Working Account, showing the Revenue and Expenditure for the financial year ending 31st March, 1882.

Section.	Miles open.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Per cent. of Receipts.	Revenue per Mile.	Expenditure per Mile.
North Island—		£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Kawakawa	...	621 2 4	...	...	...	...
Whangarei	5	1,408 12 7	1,801 8 9	127·89	281 14 7	360 5 9
Auckland	139	72,127 4 11	49,294 16 7	68·34	527 13 2	360 12 7
Napier	70	33,721 0 10	18,164 1 6	53·87	481 14 7	259 9 9
Wellington	69	41,815 1 8	31,324 7 6	74·91	606 0 4	453 19 7
Wanganui	115	43,590 3 7	28,614 4 11	65·20	331 13 0	248 16 4
New Plymouth.	51	13,231 6 0	9,489 6 10	71·72	275·15 2	197 15 4
Total	449	206,814 11 11	138,688 6 1	67·06		
South Island—						
Hurunui-Bluff .	810	651,762 7 11	363,964 10 1	55·84	818 12 9	457 3 0
Greymouth	8	10,873 14 3	5,157 18 1	47·43	1,359 4 2	644 14 9
Westport	10	6,372 2 1	3,784 18 5	59·40	637 4 2	378 9 9
Nelson	23	8,618 14 8	6,235 12 0	73·20	385 17 4	282 9 0
Picton	19	7,684 16 9	5,268 3 11	68·55	404 9 4	277 5 4
Total	870	685,211 15 8	384,411 2 6	56·13		
Grand Total	1,319	892,026 7 7	523,099 8 7	58·64		

"COMPARATIVE SUMMARY FOR PAST THREE YEARS.

Year.	Miles open.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Per cent. of Receipts.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
1881-82	1,319	892,026 7 7	523,099 8 7	58·64
1880-81	1,277	836,454 1 8	521,951 14 2	62·40
1879-80	1,172	762,572 18 1	580,010 9 6	76·06

TABLE F.

NEW ZEALAND RAILWAYS.

Hurunui-Bluff Section—Main Sections and Branches—Working Account showing the Revenue and Expenditure for the financial year ending 31st March, 1882.

Name.	Miles open.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Per cent. of Receipts
		£ s. d	£ s. d.	
Christchurch Section	145	234,185 7 7	108,887 12 9	46·50
Oxford and Eyreton Branch	43	7,310 15 1	7,257 15 3	99·28
Southbridge Branch	25	13,062 18 4	8,574 9 2	65 64
Springfield Branch	43	14,028 5 6	9,524 14 10	67·89
Total	256	268,587 6 6	131,244 12 0	49 98
Oamaru Section	104	79,813 17 8	51,201 4 1	64·15
Albury Branch	26	7,337 4 11	3,953 14 0	53·88
Waimate Branch	4	1,761 1 3	1,558 3 7	88·48
Duntroon Branch	21	5,256 15 1	3,463 19 5	65·89
Ngapara Branch	15	3,192 19 5	2,962 7 11	92·78
Total	170	97,361 18 4	63,139 9 0	64·85
Dunedin Section	115	185,942 18 4	97,367 19 11	52·36
Walton Park Branch	3	839 16 9	927 12 5	110 45
Outram Branch	9	2,843 15 2	2,956 13 11	103·97
Lawrence Branch	22	7,529 0 9	6,866 9 1	91·19
Total	149	197,155 11 0	108,118 15 4	54·84
Invercargill Section	172	76,735 16 5	49,367 3 0	64·33
Tapanui Branch	15	1,994 12 0	2,353 11 3	117·10
Riverton Branch	48	9,927 3 8	6,740 19 6	67·90
Total	235	88,657 12 1	58,461 13 9	65·94
Grand Total	810	651,762 7 11	363,964 10 1	55·84

TABLE G.

CENSUS OF NEW ZEALAND, 1881.

TABLE showing the Numbers and Proportions per Cent. to their respective Totals of Persons, Males, and Females of different Birth-places; and the Proportions of Males and Females in every 100 Persons of each Nationality living in New Zealand (exclusive of Maoris), in April, 1881.

Where Born.	Numbers.			Proportions per Cent.			Proportions of the Sexes in every 100 Persons.	
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Total	489,933	269,605	220,328	100 00	100 00	100 00	55·03	44·97
British Possessions:—								
New Zealand	223,404	112,404	111,000	45·60	41·69	50·38	50·31	49·69
Australian Colonies	17,277	8,788	8,489	3·53	3·26	3·85	50·87	49·13
England	119,224	69,471	49,753	24·33	25 77	22·58	58·27	41·73
Wales	1,963	1.233	730	·40	·46	·33	62·81	37·19
Scotland	52,753	31,005	21,748	10 77	11·50	9·87	58 77	41 23
Ireland	49,363	27,666	21,697	10·08	10·26	9·85	56·05	43 95
Other British Possessions	4,014	2,429	1,585	82	90	·72	60·51	39·49
Foreign Countries:—								
France and French Colonies	848	614	234	17	·23	·11	72·41	27·59
Germany	4,819	3,188	1,631	·98	1 18	·74	66·15	33·85
Other European Countries	7,046	5,093	1,953	1 44	1·89	·89	72 28	27·72
United States of America	841	637	204	·17	·24	·09	75·74	24·26
China	5,033	5,017	16	1 03	1 86	·01	99·68	·32
Other Countries	1.190	792	398	·24	·29	·18	66 55	33 45
At sea	1,325	667	658	·27	·25	·30	50·34	49·66
Unspecified	833	601	232	·17	·22	·10	72·15	27·85

TABLE H.

CENSUS OF NEW ZEALAND, 1881.

TABLE showing the Number of Live Stock (exclusive of Stock belonging to Maoris) as returned by the Census of the 3rd April, 1881.

Provincial Districts.	Total Number of all Descriptions.	Horses.	Brood Mares (included in the foregoing).	Mules and Asses.	Cattle (including Calves).	Breeding Cows (included in the foregoing).	Sheep (including Lambs).	Breeding Ewes (included in the foregoing).	Goats.	Pigs.	Other Stock.
Auckland	757,020	25,545	4,861	124	158,181	52,072	534,980	230,055	3,099	35 010	51
Taranaki	136,573	5,959	1,177	4	51,846	15.147	69,413	26.657	109	9,221	21
Wellington	1,737,335	21,149	3,458	51	140,951	44.707	1,547,167	634,673	878	27,061	78
Hawke's Bay	1,953,323	7,561	1,236	9	36,213	12.552	1,903,413	762,699	119	6,003	5
Marlborough	780,212	4.454	829	10	9 919	2.878	760,781	280,927	359	4,687	2
Nelson	680.786	6,634	1,251	13	31,620	10,582	631,286	206,148	1,699	9,497	37
Westland	17.301	1.103	141	6	7,914	2,613	4,428	2.299	2,098	1,722	...
Canterbury	3,713,765	45,609	8.141	83	111,155	36,771	3 519,404	1,305,156	683	66,765	66
Otago	4,187,465	43,019	8,761	61	150,150	49,318	3.952,022	1,473,850	2,167	39,907	139
Chatham Islands	63,745	703	134	1	658	179	.62,191	26,079	12	180	...
Total of Census, April, 1881	14,057,525	161,736	29,989	362	698,637	226,819	12,985,085	4,948,813	11,223	200,083	399
Total of Census, March, 1878	14,007,838	137,768	25,863	241	578,430	186,067	13,069,338	5,138,974	14,243	207,337	481
Numerical increase since 1878	49,687	23,968	4,126	121	120,207	40,752	...	...	...	...	..
Numerical decrease since 1878	...	...	...	...	...	...	84,253	190,131	3,020	7,254	82

TABL

Account of Land under Cultivation in February, 1882; the resul

Provincial Districts.		Number of Holdings over 1 acre in extent.			
		Freehold.	Rented.	Part rented, part freehold.	Total numbe of Holdings
Auckland.....	1882	4,704	937	423	6,064
	1881	4,565	845	390	5,800
Taranaki.....	1882	943	249	139	13,31
	1881	722	261	139	1,122
Hawke's Bay..	1882	683	267	132	1,082
	1881	647	210	112	969
Wellington ...	1882	2,142	913	334	3,389
	1881	1,868	774	278	2,920
Marlborough ..	1882	424	127	96	647
	1881	396	81	65	542
Nelson	1882	866	442	297	1,605
	1881	776	501	263	1,540
Westland.....	1882	229	69	21	319
	1881	150	87	20	257
Canterbury ...	1882	3,649	1,451	706	5,806
	1881	3,355	1,347	677	5,379
Otago	1882	4,092	1,377	586	6,055
	1881	3,447	1,514	657	5,618
North Island ..	1882	8,472	2,366	1,028	11,866
	1881	7,802	2,090	919	10,811
South Island ..	1882	9,260	3,466	1,706	14,432
	1881	8,124	3,530	1,682	13,336
Grand Total...	1882	17,732	5,832	2,734	26,298
	1881	15,926	5,620	2,601	24,147
Increase in 1882		1806	212	133	2,151
Decrease in 1882.....		...	...	...	...

I.

of a Collection made by the Registrar-General in that month.

Extent of Land broken up, but not under Crop.	Land under Crop, exclusive of Land under Grasses.	In Grasses after having been broken up (including Hay).	Total of Land under Cultivation.	Grass-sown Land not previously ploughed.
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
26,973	40,893	264,962	332,828	292,844
35,114	38,220	252,972	326,306	279,843
1,351	9,056	35,419	45,826	93,002
2,294	7,170	30,800	40,264	84,127
10,484	10,320	103,514	124,318	579,233
14,530	10,085	94,622	119,237	566,802
5,027	33,269	121,475	159,771	750,426
15,385	28,174	106,305	149,864	666,240
10,401	12,282	22,574	45,257	38,233
4,482	12,315	22,966	39,763	44,352
4,551	18,048	49,108	71,707	76,066
3,948	17,761	42,279	63,988	66,227
82	1,015	3,503	4,600	6,286
1,308	891	2,604	4,803	7,594
100,662	502,404	674,895	1,277,961	176,050
130,208	461,359	567,445	1,159,012	148,835
89,021	375,198	496,425	960,644	154,054
86,203	341,796	448,577	876,576	124,359
43,835	93,538	525,370	662,743	1,715,505
67,323	83,649	484,699	635,671	1,597,012
204,717	908,947	1,246,505	2,360,169	450,689
226,149	834,122	1,083,871	2,144,142	391,367
248,552	1,002,485	1,771,875	3,022,912	2,166,194
293,472	917,771	1,568,570	2,779,813	1,988,379
...	84,714	203,305	243,099	177,815
44,920	...	...	...	...

TABLE

STATEMENT OF THE RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE OF THE CONSOLIDATED

Ordinary Revenue

RECEIPTS.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Balance on 31st March, 1881:—				
Cash in the Public Account and *in transitu*		...	10,686 3 4	
Advance in the hands of Officers of the Government—				
Colonial		24,883 7 0		
Foreign		44,463 15 1		
			69,347 2 1	
Worn Silver Coin *in transitu* to Melbourne Mint		...	8,500 0 0	
				88,533 5 5
Ordinary Revenue:—				
Raised by Taxation—				
Customs	£1,470,107 18 8			
Stamps	161,115 11 8			
Land Tax	1,427 3 7			
Property Tax	250,974 17 3			
Beer Duty	58,555 17 11			
		1,942,181 9 1		
Receipts for Services rendered—				
Railways	£884,733 7 8			
Postal	152,516 9 6			
Telegraphic	77,555 8 6			
Judicial	58,486 10 5			
Land Transfer and Deeds Registry	40,740 15 5			
Registration and other Fees	34,076 8 1			
Marine	15,133 8 5			
Miscellaneous	94,243 13 3			
		1,357,486 1 3		
Territorial Revenue:—				
Depasturing Licences, Rents, &c.	£184,519 3 10			
Miscellaneous	3,983 13 4			
		188,502 17 2		
			3,488,170 7 6	
Treasury Bills issued under "The Treasury Bills Act, 1880," in renewal of Bills, as per contra		...	23,900 0 0	
				3,512,070 7 6
Total		...	...	£3,600,603 12 11

K.

FUND FOR THE FINANCIAL YEAR ENDING MARCH 31ST, 1882.

Account.

EXPENDITURE.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Permanent Appropriations:—			
Civil List	26,321 17 2		
Interest and Sinking Fund	1,500,988 12 8		
Under Special Acts of the Legislature	52,102 13 5		
Hillesmere and Forsyth Reclamation and Akaroa Railway Trust	539 4 9		
		1,579,952 8 0	
Annual Appropriations:—			
Class I.—Legislative	38,089 4 11		
,, II.—Colonial Secretary	178,756 7 8		
,, III.—Colonial Treasurer	32,427 17 8		
,, IV.—Minister of Justice	111,612 7 0		
,, V.—Postmaster-General	227,498 18 4		
,, VI.—Commissioner of Customs	71,455 18 3		
,, VII.—Commissioner of Stamps	23,561 13 2		
,, VIII.—Minister of Education	269,709 19 6		
,, IX.—Minister of Native Affairs	24,121 5 10		
,, X.—Minister of Mines	15,110 13 7		
,, XI.—Minister for Public Works	573,220 8 10		
,, XII.—Minister of Defence	129,507 17 5		
		1,695,072 12 2	
Services not provided for	...	3,795 4 8	
			3,278,820 4 10
Deficiency Bills outstanding on 31st March, 1881, paid off	...	...	94,200 0 0
Treasury Bills issued under "The Financial Arrangements Act, 1876," due 1st November, 1881, and renewed, as per contra	...	...	23,900 0 0
			3,396,920 4 10
Balance on 31st March, 1882:—			
Cash in the Public Account and *in transitu*	...	128,779 9 9	
Advances in hands of Officers of the Government—			
Colonial	22,817 7 10		
Foreign	49,286 10 6		
		72,103 18 4	
Worn Silver Coin *in transitu* to Melbourne Mint	...	2,800 0 0	
			203,683 8 1
Total	...	...	£3,600,603 12 11

TABLE ATTACHED TO THE COLONIAL TREASURER'S
The Public Debt of New

LOANS.	DEBENTURES AND TREASURY BILLS IN CIRCULATION.		
	Amount.		When Redeemable.
UNDER ACTS OF THE COLONIAL GOVERNMENT:—	£	£	
Ordinance of Legislative Council	...	311	On presentation
New Zealand Loan Act, 1856	375,000	500,000	January, 1888
	25,000		October, 1888
	50,000		October, 1889
	50,000		June, 1894
New Zealand Loan Act, 1860	...	93,100	1 July, 1891
New Zealand Loan Act, 1863	488,000	1,519,400	15 July, 1914
	500,000		1 November, 1915
	201,500		15 March, 1891
	236,000		15 June, 1891
	93,900		15 December, 1891
Consolidated Loan Act, 1867	4,583,100	4,660,100	36 years from issue
	64,000		1 January, 1893
	13,000		15 April, 1913
Defence and Other Purposes Loan Act, 1870	600,000	1,030,000	36 years from issue
	50,000		31 December, 1885
	20,000		1 July, 1910
	75,000		15 April, 1913
	5,000		25 June, 1881
	250,000		15 July, 1906 (5/30)
Immigration and Public Works Loan Act, 1870	2,100,000	3,200,000	36 years from issue
	372,100		15 April, 1913
	27,900		15 April, 1882
	200,000		1 June, 1907
	500,000		1 Feb., 1904 (5/30)
North Otago District Public Works Loan Act, 1872	...	17,000	1 November, 1902
Immigration and Public Works Loan Act, 1873	1,500,000	2,000,000	1 Feb., 1904 (5/30)
	500,000		15 July, 1906 (5/30)
General Purposes Loan Act, 1873	12,300	750,000	15 May, 1914
	49,500		15 December, 1881
	20,900		15 October, 1883
	18,500		15 October, 1913
	6,200		15 October, 1885
	142,600		Various
	500,000		15 July, 1906 (5/30)
Westland Loan Act, 1873	...	50,000	15 April, 1894
Immigration and Public Works Loan Act, 1874	...	4,000,000	1 Feb., 1905 (5/30)
New Zealand Loan Act, 1876	...	1,000,000	1 Mar., 1918 (10/40)
New Zealand Loan Act, 1877	...	2,500,000	1 Mar., 1918 (10/40)
New Zealand Consolidated Stock Act, 1877	...	5,371,200	1 November, 1929
New Zealand Loan Act, 1870	...	524,000	1 November, 1889
Treasury Bills—			
Treasury Bills Extended Currency Act, 1873	180,000	900,100	1 November, 1882
Treasury Bills Extended Currency Act, 1876	60,000		1 November, 1882
Financial Arrangements Act, 1876	23,900		1 November, 1881
Treasury Bills Act, 1879	310,100		31 December, 1882
Treasury Bills Act, 1880	326,100		30 June, 1883
UNDER ACTS OR ORDINANCES OF THE LATE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS:—		280,300	
Auckland Loan Act, 1863	31,600		33 years from issue
Wellington Loan Act, 1866	13,500		1 July, 1886
Nelson Loan Act, 1874	18,000		Various
Lyttelton and Christchurch Railway Loan Ordinance, 1860	77,700		30 years from issue
Canterbury Loan Ordinance, 1862	22,800		50 years from issue
Otago Loan Ordinance, 1862	116,700		1 July, 1898
ADVANCES ON SECURITY OF DEBENTURES AND TREASURY BILLS:—		28,365,511	
Immigration and Public Works Loan Act, 1870	300,000	800,000	...
Treasury Bills Act, 1879	500,000		31 December, 1882
Totals		29,165,511	

* This rate is payable on the amount of the original

L.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF 6TH JULY, 1881.

Zealand on 31st March, 1881.

SINKING FUNDS ACCRUED.	NET INDEBTEDNESS.	ANNUAL CHARGE.				TOTAL.
		INTEREST.		SINKING FUND.		
		Rate.	Amount.	Rate.	Amount.	
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	p. cent.	£ s. d.	p. cent.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
...	311 0 0	...	...	...	...	...
387,812 8 11	112,187 8 4	4	20,000 0 0	2	10,000 0 0	30,000 0 0
62,696 8 6	30,403 11 6	6	5,586 0 0	2	1,862 0 0	7,448 0 0
		5	24,400 0 0	1	4,880 0 0	29,280 0 0
		4	20,000 0 0	1	5,000 0 0	25,000 0 0
447,425 19 3	1,071,974 0 0	6	12,090 0 0	2	4,030 0 0	16,120 0 0
		6	14,160 0 0	2	4,720 0 0	18,880 0 0
		6	5,634 0 0	2	1,878 0 0	7,512 0 0
		5	229,155 0 0	1	45,831 0 0	274,986 0 0
		5	3,200 0 0	...	...	3,200 0 0
		4	520 0 0	...	...	520 0 0
		5	30,000 0 0	1	6,000 0 0	36,000 0 0
		5	2,500 0 0	...	...	2,500 0 0
		4½	900 0 0	...	...	900 0 0
1,072,034 7 9	7,788,065 12 3	4	3,000 0 0	...	...	3,000 0 0
		4½	225 0 0	...	...	225 0 0
		5	12,500 0 0	...	...	12,500 0 0
		5	105,000 0 0	1	21,000 0 0	126,000 0 0
		4	14,884 0 0	...	...	14,884 0 0
		4½	1,255 10 0	...	...	1,255 10 0
		4	8,000 0 0	2	4,000 0 0	12,000 0 0
		4½	22,500 0 0	...	...	22,500 0 0
3,476 12 7	13,523 7 5	5	850 0 0	10*	7,000 0 0	7,850 0 0
...	2,000,000 0 0	4½	67,500 0 0	...	...	67,500 0 0
		5	25,000 0 0	...	...	25,000 0 0
...		4	492 0 0	...	...	492 0 0
...		5	2,475 0 0	...	...	2,475 0 0
...		4	836 0 0	...	...	836 0 0
...	750,000 0 0	4	740 0 0	...	...	740 0 0
...		4½	279 0 0	...	...	279 0 0
...		5	7,130 0 0	...	...	7,130 0 0
...		5	25,000 0 0	...	...	25,000 0 0
935 15 7	49,064 4 5	5	2,500 0 0	...	...	2,500 0 0
...	4,000,000 0 0	4½	180,000 0 0	...	...	180,000 0 0
...	1,000,000 0 0	5	50,000 0 0	...	...	50,000 0 0
...	2,500,000 0 0	5	125,000 0 0	...	...	125,000 0 0
...	5,371,200 0 0	4	214,848 0 0	...	...	214,848 0 0
...	524,000 0 0	5	26,200 0 0	...	...	26,200 0 0
...	900,100 0 0	3 3/8 d. p.d.	46,200 8 11	...	...	46,200 8 11
9,490 19 6	22,109 0 6	6	1,896 0 0	2	632 0 0	2,528 0 0
6,576 7 5	6,923 12 7	8	1,080 0 0	2	270 0 0	1,350 0 0
...	18,000 0 0	7	1,260 0 0	...	...	1,260 0 0
32,201 0 8	45,408 19 4	6	4,662 0 0	2	1,554 0 0	6,216 0 0
2,196 2 1	20,603 17 11	6	1,368 0 0	1	228 0 0	1,596 0 0
32,305 10 1	84,394 9 11	6	7,002 0 0	1	1,167 0 0	8,169 0 0
2,057,241 15 1	26,308,269 4 11		1,327,827 18 11		120,052 0 0	1,447,879 18 11
...	300,000 0 0	†	...	...	...	...
...	500,000 0 0	3 3/8 d. p.d.	25,664 1 3	...	...	25,664 1 3
2,057,241 15 1	27,108,269 4 11		1,353,492 0 2		120,052 0 0	1,473,544 0 2

issue, viz., £70,000. † Rate of interest varies.

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SCHEDULE.

RURAL DEFERRED-PAYMENT SECTIONS.

Block.	Section.	Area.	Upset Price per Acre.
		OEO SURVEY DISTRICT.	
		A. R. P.	£ s. d.
I.	54	108 0 0	5 0 0
	61	130 0 0	4 0 0
	63	50 0 0	6 0 0
	65	50 0 0	6 0 0
	68	150 0 0	5 0 0
II.	3	60 0 0	5 0 0
	15	130 0 0	5 0 0
	19	126 0 0	5 0 0
	23	100 0 0	5 0 0
III.	5	60 0 0	4 0 0
		WAIMATE SURVEY DISTRICT.	
I.	16	50 0 0	3 0 0
	19	80 0 0	3 10 0
	23	120 0 0	3 10 0
	26	108 3 3	4 0 0
		OPUNAKE SURVEY DISTRICT.	
XIII.	7	109 0 0	4 0 0
	10	135 0 0	5 0 0
	13	100 0 0	5 0 0
	16	88 0 0	5 0 0
	19	75 0 0	5 0 0
XIV.	9	126 0 0	5 0 0
		KAUPOKONUI SURVEY DISTRICT.	
XIII.	28	82 3 0	3 0 0
	32	50 0 0	3 0 0

TO BE SOLD FOR CASH.

WAIMATE SURVEY DISTRICT.—RURAL SECTIONS.			
		A. R. P.	£ s. d.
I.	28	107 0 0	4 0 0
	32	60 0 0	2 10 0
	33	87 0 0	2 0 0
	35	76 0 0	2 10 0
	36	81 0 0	2 10 0

Block.	Section.	Area.			Upset Price per Acre.		
		A.	R.	P.	£	s.	d.
II.	18	103	0	0	2	0	0
	19	95	0	0	2	0	0
	21	77	0	0	2	5	0
	22	73	0	0	2	5	0
	24	75	0	0	2	10	0
	25	82	0	0	2	10	0
	27	69	0	0	2	5	0
	28	70	0	0	3	0	0
	30	70	0	0	4	0	0
III.	26	258	0	0	3	0	0
	27	203	0	0	3	0	0
IV.	74	50	0	0	2	10	0
	76	48	2	3	2	10	0
	77	48	2	3	2	10	0
	79	48	2	3	2	10	0
	80	41	3	0	3	0	0
	82	50	0	0	3	10	0
	83	60	0	0	4	0	0
	85	112	0	0	5	0	0
	88	50	0	0	5	0	0
	90	59	0	0	5	0	0
	123	70	0	0	3	0	0
	124	44	1	12	3	0	0
	125	40	0	0	3	0	0
	126	70	0	0	2	0	0
	127	41	0	4	2	10	0
	129	50	0	0	2	10	0
	130	50	0	0	2	10	0

Waimate: Blocks I., II., III., and IV., parts of the land known as the continuous Native reserve. The sections front to cleared road-lines, running back into the bush. The land is partly open and partly bush.

Ngaire Survey District.—Rural Sections.							
		A.	R.	P.	£	s.	d.
V.	73	99	0	0	1	5	0
	75	147	0	0	1	5	0
	77	150	0	0	1	5	0
	78	158	0	0	1	5	0
	79	158	0	0	1	10	0
	81	100	0	0	1	5	0
	82	98	0	0	1	5	0
	83	102	0	0	1	5	0
	85	167	0	0	1	10	0
	86	99	0	0	1	10	0
	87	99	0	0	1	10	0
	90	222	0	0	1	10	0
	92	100	0	0	1	5	0
IX.	1	147	2	36	1	10	0
	2	165	0	0	1	10	0
	5	197	0	0	1	15	0
	7	165	0	0	1	15	0

The sections in Block V., Ngaire, lie to the westward of the Waingongoro River, and are connected with the railway-line by cleared road-lines. The bush is mainly light timber, soft woods, and a few rata; and the land is well watered.

Block.	Section.	Area.	Upset Price per Acre.
	Oeo Survey District.—Rural Sections.		
		A. R. P.	£ s. d.
I.	55	90 0 0	4 0 0
	56	75 0 0	5 0 0
	60	112 0 0	2 0 0
	62	100 0 0	5 0 0
	67	80 2 24	5 0 0
	69	158 0 0	1 10 0
	71	77 0 0	5 0 0
	72	147 0 0	2 0 0
II.	4	90 0 0	4 0 0
	8	100 0 0	4 0 0
	9	100 0 0	4 0 0
	10	54 0 0	4 0 0
	12	75 0 0	4 0 0
	13	101 0 0	4 0 0
	14	130 0 0	4 0 0
	16	160 0 0	4 0 0
	17	80 0 0	4 0 0
	18	100 0 0	4 0 0
	20	130 0 0	4 0 0
	21	100 0 0	4 0 0
	22	105 0 0	5 0 0
III.	3	66 0 0	4 0 0
	6	60 0 0	5 0 0

Oeo: Blocks I., II., and III., all open level land, situated on both sides of the coach-road, from four to nine miles south-east of Opunake.

Terms of sale: One-fourth of purchase-money to be paid at sale, and the balance to the Receiver of Land Revenue, Patea or Hawera, within one calendar month from date of sale; otherwise the deposit will be forfeited, and the contract for the sale of the land thenceforth be null and void.

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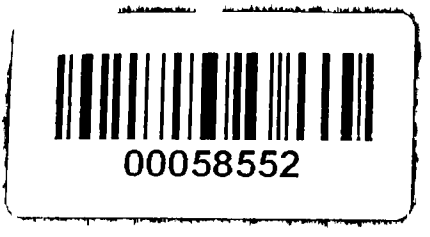
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